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VOLUME IV.

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VOLUME FOUR

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It was a saying of Lord Bacon that "History maketh one wise." Perhaps this is not universally true, but one can scarcely traverse the history and geography of the Old World with its deeds of heroism, picturesque scenes and peoples, splendid buildings, or hallowed places, without having become wiser and better, as well as having enjoyed many an hour of keen pleasure. With the most interesting of guides, we visit splendid cities, historic rivers of scenic beauty or castle-lined banks; monument-covered battle fields, or the haunts of poets and cavaliers.

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Whether it is true that great men and women made the world in which they lived, or were the product of their times, we shall never cease to read their life-stories with interest. No work would be complete without this story of the world's great heroes and heroines. Here they are: the explorers of new lands; the founders of great religions; the great statesmen; generals and admirals of all ages; the immortal artists of Florence, Venice and Rome; and imperishable names in the history of the modern world.

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Old World Travelogues

HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: THE DUAL EMPIRE

THE BALKAN PENINSULA: THE RISE AND DECLINE OF TURKEY

DOWN THE BLUE DANUBE

BELGIUM AND THE LOWLAND COUNTRIES

CANADA: THE LADY OF THE WHITE SNOW

A WONDER JOURNEY THROUGH AFRICA

CHINESE REPUBLIC: OLDEST LIVING NATION OF THE WORLD

THE SAHARA AND ITS INHABITANTS

EGYPT'S WONDERFUL STORY

THE STORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

LIFE AMONG THE ESKIMO

THE GLORY OF ANCIENT GREECE

STORY PICTURE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

RISE OF THE MODERN GERMAN EMPIRE

THE STORIED RHINE

THE HOMELAND OF JESUS

ANCIENT EMPIRE OF THE MOGULS

JAPAN AND KOREA

MEXICO: LAND OF ADVENTURE AND REVOLUTION

PARIS: THE BEAUTIFUL CAPITAL OF FRANCE

PHILIPPINE NATIVES AND CUSTOMS

THE MODERN RUSSIAN EMPIRE

PICTURESQUE SWITZERLAND AND SCANDINAVIA

HOUSE OF PARLIAMENT, VIENNA

This beautiful structure contains the Chamber of Nobles and the Chamber of Deputies. A magnificent edifice of white marble in the Grecian style, its walls are enriched by columns, statues and reliefs, with great groups in bronze upon the roof.

THE MARIA THERESA MONUMENT IN VIENNA

Erected in memory of Austria's famous ruler who was born at Vienna in 1717. The Empress is enthroned on a granite pedestal about which are grouped statues and reliefs of great men prominent during her reign.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

THE DUAL EMPIRE OF MANY RACES

IT WAS towards the end of the seventh century, when the great Charlemagne was gathering the rule of Christian Europe into his strong hand, that a province grew into shape on the Danube, near the end of the Eastern Alps. This was the East Mark, or boundary of Charlemagne's empire, the eastern outpost of the German peoples forever fighting back the oncoming Slav races from the east and northeast. This province is still called the East Kingdom, for that is the meaning of Austria, and from the kernel of the two states of Upper and Lower Austria on the Danube, the dominions of its rulers have gradually spread over the kingdom of Bohemia and Moravia to the north, over the mountains that shut in Bohemia to a strip of country beyond the northern slopes of the Carpathians, now called Galicia. Southwards, too, the dominions have spread, taking in the Tyrol, the Eastern Alps, and the provinces between the Danube and the Adriatic.

For 600 years the story of Austria has been the story of the dealings of a family, the family of the Hapsburgs, with their neighbors. When Rudolf of Hapsburg, in the thirteenth century, was chosen by the electors to head the German states as Holy Roman Emperor, few guessed the resolute character of the man who was to do so much towards restoring law and order, and in establishing the fortunes of his house. In the story of Germany we read of the extraordinary rise to power of his descendants, of Maximilian, of Charles V, and many others, and how by conquest, by treaty, by marriages with heiresses, they gained the Tyrol, the Netherlands, and Spain with its golden empire across the ocean.

THE LONG AND BITTER STORY OF THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG

With some exceptions, the title of Holy Roman Emperor remained with the Hapsburgs, which caused them to be much mixed up with the Pope and the kingdoms and duchies in Italy. Unhappily, the connection with Spain, always fervently Roman Catholic, nourished in Austria a very bitter spirit with regard to the Reformation, and during the terrible Thirty Years War the Hapsburgs were chiefly to blame for the prolonged ruin and misery spread over Germany.

Bitter and cruel have been the persecutions practiced by the House of Austria, both in the matter of religion, and in the destruction of old rights and liberties, in the states that fell under their despotic and narrow rule. Spain and the Netherlands long since passed into other hands; Austria has now no place or voice in Germany, no footing in Italy, only a small but very valuable piece of sea-coast on the Adriatic. The French Revolution and Napoleon together caused the downfall of the Holy Roman Empire, and the ruler of Austria took the new title—Emperor of Austria—before he laid down the old one.

THE STRUGGLE OF THE BOHEMIAN PEOPLE FOR FREEDOM AND INDEPENDENCE.

Bohemia was settled by a Slav people called the Czechs, and developed into a kingdom a century earlier than the formation of the East Mark, and eventful indeed have been its relations with the neighbors all around it. Bad kings and good kings succeeded each other, whose power rose and fell. Now Austria was subject to Bohemia, now to Silesia and the other country beyond

the mountains, Poland. Then all was reversed, and Bohemia had a hard fight for existence. In the fourteenth century came the beginning of the struggle about religion, which raged round Wyclif in England and Huss in Bohemia. A gentle and good princess, Anne of Bohemia, traveled at the end of the fourteenth century across the thick forests and heaths of the north plain of Germany, and then faced the waves of the North Sea to reach England. Her effigy lies beside that of the husband who loved her so dearly, Richard II, among the circle of "Royals" in Westminster Abbey. It is said that Anne did much to help the rise of the Reformation.

Long and gallant were the struggles made by the Bohemians to preserve their liberties and their distinctive language. But the Austrians, though frequently checked, gradually became stronger in their power over the country.

THE CRUSHING OF THE BOHEMIAN NATION AND THE SPLITTING UP OF POLAND

At last, in the Thirty Years War, even the victories of the Swedish king, Gustavus Adolphus, could not save them, and for long years the stifling, absolute rule of Austria became fixed and lasting, so that progress and the national feeling and language were crushed. But not hopelessly so. Bohemia took a brave share in the struggles for freedom that went on all over Europe during the last century, and many of the old hardships are now removed. There is religious liberty and self-government, and representation in the Imperial Parliament at Vienna, and freedom to revive Bohemian literature and art and the beloved mother-tongue.

Bohemia lies in the basin of the Elbe, which, like the Oder, drains to the north. By the "gates" forced by the rivers through the encircling ring of mountains, we pass to the province of Galicia. This, too, was settled in the far past by a Slav nation, the Poles. Constant and bewildering were the changes that came to them through the centuries. About the time that William of Normandy was conquering England, the Poles were forcing their way through the Carpathians and overrunning the great plains they enclose. Four hundred years later the King of Poland was chosen to be King of Bohemia. Then, when the Tudors were making themselves absolute in England, Poland was extending its borders in every direction, and securing reforms of many kinds. After that it lost its independence, regained it, lost it again, and suffered much. We see it flashing out in brave deeds, as in the relief of Vienna, when it drove away the Turks, and then comes the sad story of the sharing-out of this ancient and fine kingdom among stronger Powers. Austria's share lies chiefly in the province of Galicia.

THE MIXED RACES AND STATES THAT HAVE BEEN SLOWLY ABSORBED BY AUSTRIA

South of the Danube other Slav races settled as well as Teutons and Italians, and many states of mixed nationalities grew up and have been gradually absorbed by Austria. At Innsbruck, the capital of the Tyrol, is a bronze and marble memorial of the union of the Tyrol with Austria over 500 years ago. The famous tomb of the Emperor Maximilian is in the cathedral there, though he is buried elsewhere. But more interesting than all the reminders of royalty in Innsbruck are the relics and monument of the patriot Hofer, who made such noble and determined efforts to defend his fatherland from the Austrian oppression. "It is time," he wrote on little bits of paper, and cast them to

the hurrying streams to carry far and wide, and rouse the Tyrolese, ready and waiting to fly to arms at his call.

Salzburg is another famous Austrian town south of the Danube, full of the story of the past as regards the power of the Church. The town of Enns gives a link with English history in the times of the Crusades. Its walls were built with the money gathered with such difficulty to pay the ransom of Richard Cœur de Lion when he was taken prisoner on his way home through Austria.

The ancient kingdom of Hungary and its thousand years of struggle

Of all the neighbors with whom Austria fought with varying success as the years rolled on, the most distinct and considerable were the Hungarians. A century after the East Mark was formed, a race of people from Asia, the Magyars, quite different from the Teutons in stock and speech, burst through a gap in the Carpathian Mountains, swarmed down the great valley of the river Tisza, the German Theiss, and on to the Danube, settling about its course where it makes a deep bend to the south. The kingdom of Hungary, which was thus founded, is larger than the united states of Austria. Its constitution is perhaps older than that of England, and the story of its relations with Austria is one of incessant struggle to preserve its ancient and free manner of government.

St. Stephen was Hungary's first Christian king, and under him the Hungarians became a settled and civilized nation about a thousand years ago. He is a national hero, whose example and deeds are still held up to reverent admiration.

Hungary has been called the "bulwark and shield of Christendom," so often has it withstood the attacks of the Mohammedan Turks. The terror of these invaders along the old Danube highway hung over Europe for centuries, just as the terror of the Danes hung over England. There was a Turk's tax, just as there was a Dane's tax, with which to organize resistance or pacify the invaders with bribes. Poland, Bohemia, Austria, as well as Hungary, had constantly to fight them, but Hungary, owing to its position, had to bear the brunt of their devastations.

The first prince of the House of Hapsburg to rule over Hungary

In the history of Hungary, full of progress, loss, alliance with neighbors, and bitter wars with them, there stand out many great rulers. One of them paid a visit to London after Henry V gained his great victory of Agincourt, to try to make peace between England and France. This was Sigismund, who became King of Hungary, and was elected Holy Roman Emperor. It was a great honor, but left him little time to attend to driving back the Turks, who won, under a later king, the overwhelming victory of Mohacs. A desolate time followed, in which John Hunyadi fought bravely as the champion of Christianity against the Moslems.

A prince of the House of Hapsburg, when that family was at its greatest glory, was elected King of Hungary as well as of Bohemia. The Turks did not like this, and for long years the unhappy country was ruined by war; but the Austrian rule had come to stay. For over 300 years there were oppressive taxes, risings of the people, and every effort made to destroy the nationality, the language, the free spirit of the Hungarians. Hope revived at times, and the Hungarian nobles responded to the appeal of Maria Theresa. There was a glimpse of freedom when Hungary was recognized as an independent nation, when

the storm of the French Revolution was about to burst; but the privileges were lost again, and it needed long years of patriotic endeavor through the first half of last century to wrest back, bit by bit, the ancient rights so long trampled under foot by the Austrians.

HUNGARY SITS SIDE BY SIDE WITH AUSTRIA IN THE DUAL MONARCHY

During this time many Hungarian exiles went to England, among them the brave leader Kossuth. It was in June, 1868, that Francis Joseph, the Emperor of Austria, was crowned King of Hungary, with the ancient crown of St. Stephen, after promising to govern according to the old constitution of the country. And so it came to pass that the blood of the patriots was not shed in vain through the long years of struggle; for though often all liberty seemed lost, fresh effort ever gave new hope of success, and today Hungary sits side by side, co-equal in the great dual monarchy of the Danube.

"God save Francis the Emperor" are the opening words of the Austrian National Anthem, set to the beautiful tune to which we sing the hymn "Praise the Lord, ye Heavens adore Him." The strains greet the dignified, gray-haired old man belonging to the old line of Hapsburgs, who is both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, whenever he appears in public in Austria. His long epoch-making reign began in the revolutionary times of 1848. He was still under forty when the Prussians rose to the leadership of the states after the Seven Days War.

THE BLENDING OF FRAGMENTS THAT MAKE UP THE UNITED EMPIRE

Napoleon III, who had such a very different experience after reverses, said that Francis Joseph was the only monarch in Europe who could return to his capital after defeat, disaster, and loss of territory, and yet be received with devotion and affectionate enthusiasm. Many are the stories of his kindness to little children and to the poor, and of his tact and good feeling in carrying out his share of the government of an empire of such varied nationalities. We must remember that there is no united Austrian nation, no common Austrian tongue; but that the empire consists of a leading German state, broken off from the rest of the German-speaking peoples when Prussia rose to be their head; of various states that are fragments of other nationalities, some still speaking their own languages, some more or less absorbed by their German rulers. Besides these, there is the whole independent nationality of the Hungarians, of quite different origin from the Germans, with its own speech, manners, customs, and constitution.

When people visit Austria and Hungary today it is generally the great wonder of the Danube that first claims their attention, as they make their way to Vienna, the capital of Austria, or to Buda-Pesth, the capital of Hungary, towards which all railway routes run.

THE OLD CITY OF VIENNA AND THE BUSY TRAFFIC ON THE DANUBE

The old town lies unchanged, surrounded by a broad road lined with trees, called the Ringstrasse, beyond which buildings of every kind have grown up during the last century. In the old cathedral and churches, in the museums and picture galleries, are many reminders of the men and women famous in their country's story. In the vault of the Hapsburgs lies Marie Louise, who was made to marry Napoleon, and their son, forgotten by France, who died when about twenty.

Festooned round the cannon in the courtyard of the arsenal is a chain of some 8000 links, which the Turks threw across the Danube nearly 400 years ago to hinder the traffic.

The traffic on the Danube is very different now from what it was then. Rafts of wood still float down stream from the forests, and rough little flat-bottomed boats still paddle about from village to village. But, in addition, there are now regular lines of steamers for passengers and goods, steam tugs for the barges, and steam and electric launches for the rich folk who drive fine horses in the Ringstrasse, and have country estates in the Tyrol and the Adriatic lands, and other beautiful parts of the empire, as well as palaces in Vienna. There are over 2,000,000 people in Vienna, many of whom are engaged in various manufactures, and in building ships for the navigation of the Danube.

THE DIAMOND-SHAPED KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA, AND ITS ACTIVITIES

There are many railway routes into Bohemia and Moravia from Vienna, for both countries are rich in coal, and carry on many manufactures. In the little diamond-shaped kingdom of Bohemia, about two-thirds the size of Scotland, there is a very busy population of over 6,000,000 people. Many different crops are cultivated in the valleys, and work in mines and factories is carried on all over the country. Metal industries, such as the manufacture of engines and machinery, are carried on at Prague, the capital, also the making of cottons and woolens, sugar from beets, fine glass from the decaying granite of the mountains, and paper-making in the wooded hills. Moravia is a great woolen-manufacturing region. Between its capital, Brünn, and Vienna was fought Napoleon's famous battle of Austerlitz.

Silesia, part of which belongs to Austria, is easily reached by the river valleys that pierce the mountain wall and drain north. These "gates," through which trains run so easily now, night and day, to carry on the business north and south of the mountains, were formerly often the scenes of great battles when the pass was contested.

The Austrian lands north of the Carpathians are very cold in winter, and the plains, which in summer are green with cereals and potato crops, lie white and frozen through the long, cold months.

A CITY OF GLISTENING SALT THAT LIES 900 FEET BELOW THE GROUND

On the hillsides in these parts are dark patches of forests. Near Cracow, the old capital of Poland, is a whole town of mines 900 feet below the surface of the ground. It is two and a half miles long, three-quarters of a mile broad; all is glittering white, for it is formed of salt. These great beds of salt carry us back to ages long before history began, when this part of Europe was under the sea. When the water disappeared it left behind the salt it carried, and there it has remained stored in the bosom of Mother Earth.

What a contrast are these wind-swept plains and valleys of Galicia, the most northerly province of Austria to those of the south, between the Danube and the Adriatic. There is snow and ice on the heights of the Tyrol, but the valleys are beautiful and sheltered, with picturesque castles on the slopes, and gay little streams and waterfalls making music everywhere. The lower plains are covered with rich crops and cattle.

As the deep blue of the Adriatic comes in sight between the slender stems of the palm-trees, the olive, the vine, the mulberry all flourish in the sunshine, and the roses in winter remind us of the Riviera and its balmy air. Trieste is the great commercial port of Austria, and Pola is the chief naval port and arsenal.

Along the coast strip of Dalmatia, so studded with islands, are many fine harbors, especially the large, beautiful harbor of Cattaro, where a whole fleet can ride at ease. But the mountains come down so close to the sea that the harbors are not of much use. The well-wooded mountains and fertile valleys of Bosnia and Herzegovina lie behind Dalmatia. Till lately these provinces belonged to Turkey, but were governed by Austria; now they are part of the Austrian Empire.

Between the Austrian ports of Istria and Dalmatia lies Fiume, the port of Hungary, in direct communication by rail with Buda-Pesth. This splendid double city—Buda on one side of the Danube, Pesth on the other—lies in the heart of Hungary, near the great southward bend of the river.

How the trains run out of one country into another

If we travel to it from Vienna by train, we find when at the Hungarian frontier, that the Austrian guards take down the German notices, and Hungarian officials replace them by Hungarian notices; the engine-drivers are changed too, so completely do we pass from one country to another.

The numerous agricultural museums and colleges in Buda-Pesth, as well as the large flour-milling works, remind us of the chief source of wealth of Hungary—its wide plains of fertile soil. As we travel on the railways that cross these plains in every direction, or by the magnificent river routes, we can understand the saying that the plains of Hungary are a battlefield of human labor. The full waters of the Drave and the Save, which join the Danube on the south, and of the Tisza, which drains the grand circle of the Carpathians, are regulated and connected by canals, and used to water otherwise dry regions; and so we see fields of golden grain stretching to the horizon. Hungarian flour is said to be the finest in the world. In other parts is fine pasturage, and we exclaim in wonder at the thousands of beautiful horses, the white cattle with wide-spreading horns, the herds of black buffaloes, roaming at will as far as eye can see.

The great plains are bounded on the north by the Carpathians. They are famed for their beautiful scenery, the highest mountains rising to about 9000 feet, and for their hot springs, but above all for their great mineral wealth. Here are found coal, iron, copper, and other useful metals; also salt and gems.

An opal-mine worked 1000 years, and caverns like cathedrals

As we read of the wonder of underground Hungary, we think of the Arabian Nights, and all the fairy stories in which we have ever delighted. For besides an opal-mine which has been worked for a thousand years, and vast caverns with great cathedral-like pillars, and drapery in stone of every beautiful shape, there is a most extraordinary cavern of ice, discovered only a few years ago. As we draw near to its mouth, its icy breath is seen on the trees and bushes round as sparkling hoar-frost, even on the warmest days.

We step inside and the cold is Arctic and freezing indeed, and all round are solid blocks and walls of snowy ice in fantastic shapes. Just the haunt for fairies, we think as we look at the two little butterflies imprisoned in a great block of clear ice near the entrance. Their merry dance was cut short—no one knows how long ago. Beautiful and wonderful as it all is, we are quite glad to return to warmth and life and the light of the sun. We see many different picturesque costumes in various parts of the country, and at the fairs are many gypsies, playing their wild and interesting music.

The Balkan States from the west fail to stop at Ragusa, one of the picturesque Dalmatian outposts of Austrian rule. This photograph shows a characteristic market scene before the Church of the Jesuits and Military Hospital.

BRIDE AND BRIDEGROOM, RUTHENIA

The bridegroom's fur cap is ornamented with a gilded wreath, and four knobs made of red wool threads. The bride wears a wreath of the same evergreen plant adorned with the same knobs—the four points of the sky whence good luck is expected to come to them.

A WAYSIDE CUSTOM, EAST CARPATHIANS

In the mountains, where drinking-water is scarce, a jug of water and a drinking-cup are placed on a pole at the roadside. The traveler blesses his benefactor, making the sign of the cross. For this reason a crucifix is usually erected near the pole.

EACH RACE OR BRANCH PRESERVES ITS SOCIAL CUSTOMS

For centuries this great state of Central Europe, with its varied physical characteristics, ranging from vast Alpine regions to the boundless plains, has been the meeting-place of East and West, and the dwelling place of the three great races of Europe: the Germans, the Latins and the Slavs. To make the picture still more varied and complex, each race is divided into a number of branches, consisting of peoples having separate language, religion, traditions and customs. Thus, among the Germans we find representatives of the Saxons, Franks and Suabians; the Latins are divided into Italians and Roumanians; and the Slavs are divided into Czechs, Poles, Ruthenians, Slovaks, Croatians and Servians. And in the midst of them live other peoples belonging to different races altogether. Such are the Hungarians, who, coming from Asia a little over a thousand years ago, have consolidated themselves here into a powerful nation.

We meet these various peoples clad in their own national and highly picturesque costumes; we find them passionately clinging to their national and religious sentiments, and we see them greatly attached to their ancient modes of life and to their old customs. It is in the rural districts that the national characteristics of the people have been most strongly developed, and it is among the peasants that the national customs have been most faithfully preserved.

The Ruthenians probably surpass all the other peoples in the quaintness of their customs. Especially interesting is the Ruthenian wedding. Before the ceremony the bride is dressed by the bridesmaids. While she is sitting on a chair in the middle of the room they put on her head a wreath made of artificial flowers, more or less gilt, and trimmed with the colored ribbons, and

THE WEDDING LOAF, RUTHENIA

A large loaf is prepared and baked by relations and friends invited for the purpose, who sing songs while the baking is in progress. Besides this "korowaj," smaller loaves of the same shape are made.

A SPRING FESTIVAL, RUTHENIA

In spring, before sowing, the peasants say prayers on the field. Tapers are burned in a three-branched candlestick, between which and the corn are placed two loaves of bread, the symbol of their hopes.

during the whole time they sing certain songs of a rather melancholy melody.

It is the usual custom among the Slavonic peoples for the bridegroom's party to go to the bride's house, and to start together to church. Among the Ruthenians, after the ceremony is over, while the wedding party goes to the bridegroom's house or to the village inn, the bride returns home with the bridesmaids and her girl friends. Here they all sing many special songs, until the bridegroom arrives. But he is not let in, and he has to buy his way; and when he at last comes in the room he finds his bride between two brothers or male relatives, and he has to buy her out again.

The characteristic feature of a Ruthenian wedding is the so-called "korowaj." This is a large loaf prepared and baked under the auspices of relatives and friends invited for the purpose, and who sing special songs while the baking is in progress. The loaf is adorned with ornaments made of pastry. Then a little tree is erected in the middle of this and a wax candle fastened to it. Besides this "korowaj," smaller loaves of the same shape are made. After the wedding ceremony the "korowaj" is carried to the house of the bridegroom by the best man, who in delivering it makes a speech to the young couple.

THE EASTER FESTIVITIES

As a rule, all these peoples do not eat meat during Lent. Among the Ruthenians the different dishes prepared for the Easter feast are carried at daybreak to the square in front of the church in order to have them blessed by the village priest. Several special customs are observed during the feast itself. Thus, before the meal starts the head of the family takes up the large white loaf, called "paska," which has been specially baked for the occasion, and after having made with the knife the sign of the cross upon it, cuts several small pieces, which he distributes among those present. These pieces are immediately eaten, care being taken not to drop any crumbs on the floor, for this is considered a great sin.

Among the Hungarians and the Slavonic people Easter is the sprinkling season. Young men and women sprinkle each other with water—among the rich classes the women are sprinkled with perfume—and exchange colored eggs, that is, eggs that have the shells elaborately and sometimes very artistically colored.

Another Easter custom prevailing among the Hungarians takes place the day before Easter Sunday. A great number of people assemble in the market square, and there they elect a number of officials to carry out the Easter ceremonies.

After this prayers are offered that the crops may be preserved from locusts, droughts, and other pests and calamities.

Constantinople, built, like Rome, upon seven hills, is of such importance that all nations covet it. It is picturesque and dirty, but the old, insanitary, narrow streets are becoming fewer and fewer. This picture of the Turkish capital shows the varied character of its architecture. Buildings of European appearance are everywhere mixed up with mosques that have their roofs covered with rows of little domes looking for all the world like mud pies.

THE BALKAN PENINSULA

THE RISE AND DECLINE OF TURKEY

THE Balkan Peninsula is washed by four seas: The Adriatic, the Archipelago, the sea of many islands, the Sea of Marmora, and the Black Sea. Two narrow straits, called the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, connect the Sea of Marmora with the Sea of Many Islands and the Black Sea.

Most of this long coastline, like that of Italy, is very beautiful; so are the many islands that surround it. We find the same deliciously warm, sunny climate, the same lovely bays with white or yellow sands, the same green hills or bare rocks running down to the intensely blue sea, the same exquisite veil of shining haze, fit robe for a country whose early legends and history are the most mysteriously beautiful and wonderful in the world.

But in the Balkan Peninsula we have no story, of various separate states gradually fusing into one nation and kingdom. Rugged highlands cover much of its surface, the chief ranges being the sheltering Balkans, which give their name to the peninsula, and stretch across it, south of the Danube, east and west. The height of these mountains varies from 2000 to 8000 feet, the highest being twice the height of the giants of Scotland. Many other ranges branch off in different directions; the Pindus chain, striking southward, forms a sort of backbone in the narrower part of the peninsula. There are several large plains, the chief being the great plain of the Lower Danube. South of the Balkans is the plain drained by the Maritza river; and the plain of Thessaly lies east of the Pindus range. These, and many smaller plains, are much isolated and cut off from each other by the far-reaching mountains, across which it has been difficult to make good roads.

Another chief reason why the different states which were gradually formed in these plains and on the hillsides have never really united is that the peoples who have settled and ruled in them belong to quite different races, with different speech, and, to some extent, different religion.

Twice in the centuries since the birth of Christ there has been a ruling power in the peninsula strong enough

to keep for a time the various states more or less under its control and leadership. But an unconquerable desire for independence has led to grim and tragic warfare all through the years.

GREECE, A FAMOUS LAND SHAPED LIKE A MULBERRY LEAF

Let us start at the southern end of the peninsula, the Morea, shaped like a mulberry leaf, the stalk that joins it to the mainland being the Isthmus of Corinth, which is now cut by a canal. The Morea, with the provinces to the north of it and many fairy-like islands, make up the far-famed country of Greece. This small country, especially the division of it called Attica, with its famous capital, Athens, has influenced the lives and thoughts of countless people for more than two thousand years, so great were the learning and the taste of those who lived and worked in it in the far past.

In the middle of the fourth century, Constantine, the Christian emperor, took the old Greek city of Byzantium, situated on the point where the rushing stream of the Bosphorus widens into the Sea of Marmora. A fine situation, thought the emperor: Asia in sight across the straits, a splendid harbor—the Golden Horn, we call it now—running seven miles inland.

HOW CONSTANTINE BUILT THE NEW ROME IN FULL SIGHT OF ASIA

And so he added to the city, built walls to defend it, and called it New Rome. But the name it has always borne is Constantinople—the city of Constantine—and it soon became the capital of the Eastern or Greek Empire, also called the Byzantine Empire.

Unhappily, differences arose between the Churches of the East and West, and so it came to pass that as Christianity spread over Europe in the centuries when the formerly wild peoples were settling down, these peoples joined either the Western Church, with the Pope as head, or the Eastern Church, ruled by the Patriarch of Constantinople. We have already seen that the English, French, and Germans, were converted by missionaries from Rome. But the Slavonic peoples, and others of different stock who became very much mixed up with the Slavs, settling, as they did, about the Balkans and the Danube from the sixth century onwards, had most to do with the Eastern Empire, and so took their Christianity from the Eastern or Greek Church. Chief among these peoples were some whose names appear on our modern maps—the Bulgars, who settled between the Danube and the Balkans, and whose kingdom now reaches over the southern slopes of the mountains; and the Serbs, who settled to the west of them, in Servia, and other smaller states near the Adriatic. Many and sore were the struggles between the Eastern emperors and these settlers on the northern boundaries of their dominions.

THE PEOPLE OF THE MOUNTAINS AND THE BUILDERS UP OF KINGDOMS

Let us look a little closer at the land on these northern boundaries. Then, as now, the noble Danube River in its middle course rolled on from the distant Alps and Carpathians, forming a splendid waterway from the plain of Hungary to the Black Sea. Then, as now, well-watered, fertile plains lay on each side of the river, shut in by the Hungarian mountains on the north and the Balkans in the south. The northern plain, with its sheltering slopes, became settled by tribes whose lands later became independent kingdoms, called Moldavia and Wallachia.

In the picturesque mountain country between the Black Sea and the Adriatic, a perfect ferment of peoples

This is a young Servian oman of the Greek Ortho- x Church, the religion that ost Servians profess.

The picturesque national costume of Montenegro is shown in this picture of one of the prince's bodyguard.

The people of Albania were formerly all Christians, but many of them, like this man, are now Modhammedans.

This is a Servian woman belonging to the Roman Catholic Church, as indicated by the way she dresses.

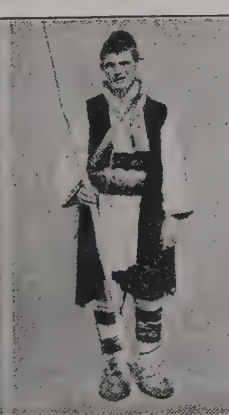
The sailors of the Greek eas are very unlike our ideas f what a sailor should be. his is a mariner of Cos.

This is another type of Albanian warrior, and shows the curious kilted costume worn in the south.

There are many Albanians who still remain Christians, and here we see a Roman Catholic woman of Albania.

The people of Bulgaria, as shown in this picture, are a fine type. Elementary education is compulsory.

This is a typical peasant oman of European Turkey the qualnt costume she ears on gala occasions.

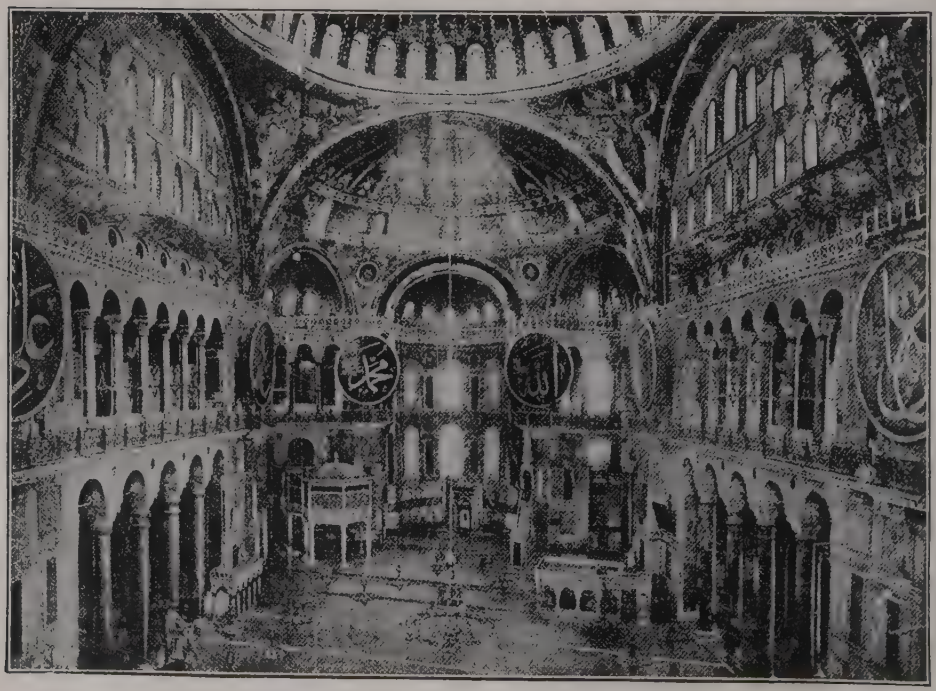


The Macedonians have often revolted against their Turkish rulers. Here we see a Macedonian shepherd.

The Bosnians, of whom this is a type, have much in common with Servia, but they are now Austrian subjects.

The Bosnian women wear a picturesque costume, an important part of which is the many-colored sash.

The Roman Emperor Julian, who was the nephew of Constantine the Great, had been brought up as a Christian, but all the time he secretly admired the heathen gods of Greece and Rome, and when he became emperor he tried to restore the pagan worship. Because of this, he has been known in history as Julian the Apostate. He tried hard to win the Christians over to paganism by flattery and favor, and here we see him addressing a conference of Christians. It is said that on his death-bed Julian exclaimed: "Thou has conquered, O Galilean!"



The wonderful mosque of St. Sophia, at Constantinople, of which we see the interior in this picture, was built originally as a Christian church, by the Emperor Justinian the Great, and it has always been the world's finest example of Byzantine architecture. When the Turks took Constantinople they turned it into a mosque, and so what had once been the most beautiful Christian church became the most magnificent sanctuary of the Moslem world. Round the walls may be seen large circular plaques bearing texts from the Koran.

settled and fought and struggled with each other and with their neighbors, into whose hands they fell ever and again as the years rolled on. The kingdoms of the Bulgarians and Servians were particularly large and important, and towns and monasteries rose up among the mountains in the sunny valleys. Bosnia, too, managed to keep itself distinct, and to develop into a kingdom.

About the middle of the sixth century the names of three great men stand out—the heroic General Belisarius, the Emperor Justinian the Great, and the writer Procopius, who gives such a full account of their doings. Justinian's two chief works were the revision of the old Roman law and the building of the noble cathedral of St. Sophia at Constantinople. By bringing the stern old laws of the empire more into harmony with the gentler religion of Christ, Justinian did much good for his own times; but not only that, so well and thoroughly was the work done that this revision has ever since been of the greatest value to those who are starting the study of law. With regard to his other chief work, twice had the cathedral of St. Sophia been burned down.

The Building of the Wonderful Church of St. Sophia 1400 Years Ago

Within forty days of the second disaster, Justinian started the rebuilding of the magnificent place of worship we see today. Its shape is that of a Greek cross—the four arms of equal length—with a vast dome in the center. Procopius speaks of the glorious colors of the marble pillars—taken from the old temples of Asia—green and purple, glowing red and glittering white; the bright sunshine from the many windows of the dome falling on beautiful mosaics and gorgeous gilding, and on a wealth of gold and silver plate and precious gems. Such was St. Sophia 1400 years ago.

About a hundred years after Justinian, the Emperor Heraclius fought many campaigns against the Persians, far away on the banks of the Euphrates, in Asia; and the cause of the war was this: In Jerusalem—the city so sacred to Christians, and at that time part of the emperor's dominions—there was treasured up a piece of wood, believed to be part of the Cross. The Persians, who had long been encroaching on the emperor's borders, came and took this piece of holy wood away. Heraclius, after much fighting, succeeded in getting it back from the Persians, and, returning to Constantinople, laid it before the altar of St. Sophia, before restoring it to its shrine in Jerusalem.

It was during the years of this Persian war that a young man, belonging to an Arab tribe, was growing up in a poor and adventurous way. He was a reformer, for he taught the Arabs, or Saracens, to give up idolatry, and to form themselves into one nation.

Mohammed's Letter to the Kings and the Persian King's Reply

His new religion taught that there is but one God; that both the Jewish and Christian religions had come from God, but that he, Mohammed, was sent to teach a more perfect faith, still, and to force it upon the whole world. Mohammed sent a sort of circular letter to the kings of the earth calling upon them to embrace this faith. The Persian king answered that he would put the prophet in chains when he had time; Heraclius made no direct reply, but sent some small presents.

It is almost impossible for us to realize the force and fury with which the followers of Mohammed, catching the fire of his tremendous enthusiasm,

set forth to conquer the world to their faith by the sword. They not only did not fear death, but for the sake of their faith and of the paradise promised by Mohammed they were ready to die. They firmly believed they would then be safe and sure of perfect happiness in the world to come.

It was this fierce spirit in the Saracens—for so they were called as they spread, conquering, far and near—that caused them to be so greatly dreaded. Province after province in Asia fell to them, including Jerusalem, and the holy wood was hastily taken back to St. Sophia. The magnificent walls of Constantinople saved the city from capture by the Mohammedans for another three centuries, but nearly all the time the emperors of the East were engaged in fighting the followers of the prophet.

THE TWO BRANCHES OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH BREAK APART

During these years the two branches of the Christian Church were drifting wider apart. Latin ceased to be a common tongue, and the Roman element became less and less strong. The Greek language and literature were more widely cultivated, and many scholars were at work in monasteries and schools, often in remote spots out of the way of the turmoil of incessant war. For, besides the struggle with the Mohammedan Saracens and Turks, who followed them, the empire was beset with wild tribes pressing in from the north. Such were the Russians, who united in a single horde about the middle of the ninth century, and worked their way to the Black Sea. They made raids on the Bosphorus, and ravaged Bulgaria.

To make matters worse, there were a great many feeble and wicked emperors, stone-blind to the pressing needs of their times, who allowed their great inheritance to slip out of their weak and idle hands. Occasionally a strong man arose, such as Basil II, in the same century that saw the Norman conquest of England. Basil managed to subdue a strong compact against him formed by Bulgaria and Servia inland, and Macedonia by the sea. His cruelty was horrible, and gained him the name of the "Slayer of the Bulgarians." He moved back the border of the empire to the Danube; but his successors were weak and unworthy, and quite unable to resist the onward rush of the Seljouk Turks from the East, who, having become Mohammedans, gained Asia Minor and Jerusalem.

THE DESTRUCTION OF CONSTANTINOPLE AND THE SCATTERING OF ITS TREASURES

To this day pilgrims make their way, often on foot, from all the countries round, to visit the sacred shrines in the Holy City, and it was the tales of the bad treatment of the pilgrims long ago that roused Europe to start the Crusades.

The Fourth Crusade, headed by Baldwin of Flanders, fell very far short of the high aims with which these "Holy Wars" began. Detained for awhile at Venice while waiting for ships to carry them eastwards, the Crusaders were persuaded to take up the private quarrels of the Venetians, and in the end they helped them to besiege Constantinople.

The city was taken on the second attack, and the inhabitants were treated with terrible cruelty; their beautiful city was sacked, and the art treasures that Constantine and his successors had gathered together were ruined.

To make paltry coins, the most beautiful bronze statues the world has ever seen were cast into the melting pot. So "Christians" of the West treated Constantinople of the East.

Baldwin was elected emperor; but his rule was not for long. The Venetians and the Genoese, bent on enriching themselves by trade, shared various islands and ports between them. The large island of Crete, with its steep mountains dark with evergreen foliage and its smiling valleys, fell for a time to Venice.

During the last century of the existence of the once mighty but now dying empire, its great destroyers, the Ottoman Turks, or Osmanli, under their crescent banner, were gradually carving their way to the heart of the empire, Constantinople. The Asiatic provinces, the chief islands and ports, fell one by one, and still on they came.

THE MARCH OF THE TURKS INTO EUROPE, AND THE DOOM OF THE QUARRELERS

The story of how the Turkish Crown Prince with eighty followers crossed into Europe on rafts is most thrilling. At the narrowest part of the Dardanelles—no wider than a good-sized river—they succeeded in gaining a fort, the first foothold of the Ottoman Turks in Europe. Before many years had passed, towns, villages, valleys, all fell to the conquerors—even Adrianople, the second city of the empire, situated in a beautiful and fertile valley. There were several causes which helped on the Osmanli besides their own daring and power in arranging the best ways to fight. The rulers of the old empire were weak and foolish; the Balkan Christians were fiercely destroying each other while the hour of their doom was coming nearer; and the other Christian peoples around, the Venetians, Genoese, Hungarians, Poles, Austrians, were too disunited, too busy with their own affairs, to join heart and soul against the powerful invaders at their gates.

BOYS OF CONQUERED PEOPLES DRILLED TO FIGHT AGAINST THEIR COUNTRIES

Sigismund of Hungary headed a force when the Turks burst through the Balkans; but they were too strong for him, and, besides he was much taken up with persecuting John Huss, the enlightened reformer, and his followers. Later, the brave Hunyadi, with the Poles, defeated the Turks, but was afterwards in his turn, defeated at the battle of Kossovo.

Constantinople in these days was more and more becoming a city-state instead of the heart of a once mighty empire, and the Turks were more and more determined to have it for their capital; so all the time they were increasing their ships and their army. One way of increasing the strength of the army was to make the conquered Christian peoples give up the finest of their boys. These boys were brought up as Mohammedans, and drilled to fight against the countries which had given them birth. These troops were the famous Janissaries, or new soldiers, who helped so largely to destroy the Eastern Empire, and who, later, gained so much power over the sultans.

THE TAKING OF CONSTANTINOPLE, AND THE LAST CHRISTIAN SERVICE IN ST. SOPHIA

The ruins of the thick walls of Constantine's city show how strong were the defences when Constantine XI, the last emperor, stood bravely in the breach against Mohammed II. He knew the end was near, and at midnight had taken the sacrament in the beautiful church of St. Sophia. Then, after a short rest in his ruined palace, he sadly mounted his horse and rode away amid the sobs of the crowd to the post of danger. Before long the besiegers made their entrance over his dead body. The streets were deserted, for the people had gathered in St. Sophia, in frantic prayer, expecting a miracle to save them. Alas! a piteous wailing went up as they were dragged out to be killed or

sent to slavery, and then, only a few hours after the celebration of Constantine's last act of Christian worship, the loud voice of the Mohammedan crier rang out through the huge building: "There is no god but Allah. Mohammed is the prophet of Allah." This was on May 29, 1453.

St. Sophia still stands in its grandeur, and many of its beautiful mosaics still tell of its Christian past, though for more than four centuries it has been used as a Mohammedan mosque.

THE FLIGHT OF THE LEARNED MEN, AND THE BIRTH OF THE NEW LEARNING

This conquest by the Turks of the old Greek Empire, and particularly that of Constantinople, caused the flight of many students and learned men, with the manuscripts they so much loved, towards the West, chiefly to Italy. In Florence, Lorenzo the Magnificent, gathered round him men who were interested in the old Greek manuscripts and in the old Greek art. The knowledge of these writings and of this art had been shut up so long in the East that when the study of them was revived it was called the New Learning, and the New Birth of Art. Many scholars from all over Europe journeyed to Italy in those days, and returned to their own countries to fire others with enthusiasm for the study of Greek and its wonderful literature. "I have given my whole soul to Greek learning," writes Erasmus, the friend of More and Colet, from Paris, "and as soon as I get any money I shall buy Greek books—and then I shall buy some clothes."

During the years that followed the taking of Constantinople, the crescent on the Ottoman banner shone triumphantly over an immense and powerful empire from the Danube to the Euphrates, from the Caspian Sea to the Straits of Gibraltar. The discipline and unity of purpose of the Mohammedans prevailed against the jealousies and quarrels of the Christian kingdoms. Deeds of daring and heroic resistance on their part were not wanting, and there were terrible revolts and massacres; but so bitter were the jealousies between Christian rulers, so intense the hatred between the East and West branches of the Church, and between Catholics and Protestants, that not only was there no united front against the followers of Mohammed, but on several occasions Christians sought alliance with them against their fellow Christians.

THE SULTANS OF TURKEY, AND THE MAGNIFICENCE OF SULEIMAN THE GRAND

Among the Turkish rulers—who came to be called sultans—were many strong and clever men. One of the greatest was Mohammed II, who had ridden over Constantine's body and up the nave of St. Sophia on that eventful day in May, 1453. He ruled for thirty years, and conquered Servia, Bosnia, and Greece.

Suleiman the Magnificent lived at the same time as the trio of Western kings, Henry VIII of England, Francis I of France, and Charles V of Germany. An old German song shows the terror which this "Grand Turk" cast over the Holy Roman Empire. It says: "The furious Turk has lately brought great forces in Hungary; from Hungary he has quickly entered Austria in the light of day; Bavaria is his for the taking, thence he presses onward and may soon come to the Rhine, for which cause we have no peace or rest."

It was said of Suleiman that while he ruled, sword and pen were never dry, so continually was he fighting and so great was the number of writers in his day. It was he who swore he would take no rest till the prayer of the prophet rang out from the tower of

THE OPENING OF THE BALKAN WAR

In October, 1912, the King of Montenegro declared he would no longer allow the massacre of his countrymen across the Turkish border, and sent his troops to war. To the Montenegrins it was a holy war and the army included every man who could set forth. Their priests blessed them and they set out with religious ceremonies, vowing to free their countrymen or perish

St. Stephen's Church in Vienna. But his quarter of a million Turks were obliged to retire from the gallant city, and so the spread of the Turkish power in the valley of the Danube was checked for awhile.

A LONG LINE OF WEAK AND CRUEL RULERS OF THE CONQUERING TURKS

A few years after Suleiman's death, at the great naval battle of Lepanto, a limit was set to Turkish power in the Mediterranean and upon the sea generally.

After this came a succession of weak and cruel rulers, and under them there were wars with the Persians, mutinies of the Janissaries, who had become a very rich and strong body, and other disasters. Ottoman power rose again for a time under the able rule of a family named Kiuprili, many of whom acted as prime ministers. It was under one of these men that the Turks determined to try their fortune again at Vienna. Enormous preparations were made, and alliances renewed with most of the surrounding nations, so that the emperor should be left without help.

The vast hosts advanced, spreading terror and desolation in their way. Then they encamped before Vienna. The peasants had crowded into the city from the country round. There was but a small garrison, the old walls were out of repair, and the Turks, the best engineers and artillerymen in Europe, soon undermined them and drove off the emperor's soldiers.

THE STEADY EBBING OF THE TURKISH POWER IN EUROPE

At last, after two terrible months, when it seemed only a question of days before the Turkish general would gain the glory of receiving the submission of the devoted city, a troop of Poles was seen hastening down the vine-clad slopes, shouting "Sobieski forever!"

The terror of the name of this gallant King of Poland, who had inflicted such terrible defeats on them before, filled the Turks with a panic, and they fled on all sides, leaving immense treasure behind them. The siege was raised, and the Turks were driven out of Austria.

Since this September day in 1683 the tide of Turkish power in Europe has steadily ebbed. No more did the sultans threaten and terrify the whole world, though they still had some successes, and continued for many years to keep in wretched bondage and misery the Christian nations of the Balkan Peninsula.

The Turks were driven out of Hungary; many towns and islands in the Mediterranean were taken from them; Greece passed for a time to the Venetians before entering on its long final struggle for freedom against the Turks. The Russians, now growing into a Power in Europe, captured Azov, on the Black Sea, and by degrees its northern shore passed into their hands. Ships on the Black Sea meant power to threaten Constantinople.

THE GREAT CHANGES THAT CAME

With the growth of Russia's power came the right to interfere in the provinces north of the Danube, particularly Moldavia and Wallachia, which were dependent on Turkey. This country's frontier fell back to the Dniester, then to the Pruth, and for many years the old kingdoms were alternately under Russia and Turkey.

If ever in history the Balkan States have laid claim to the title of the "powder box of Europe" they do so now. Never before have they been so firmly united as they are today. Factional feuds between the reigning houses have not curbed Bulgaria's progress as they have that of Servia. In spite of the fact that thirty-five years ago Bulgaria was a down-trodden province of Turkey, today, although the youngest, she is the bulwark of the Balkan States.

DOWN THE BLUE DANUBE

FOR nearly two thousand miles the Danube winds its way, through lovely lands, with peoples of many nations on its banks. For majesty of scenery, for constant variety of view, for endless differences in the character of the peoples of many tribes and nations, for quaintness and charm in the costumes of the people, for beauty of village after village, for romance in records of events through the ages, the Danube may be reckoned unequaled in Europe.

The Danube from its source to the sea—Looking up the river for 1750 miles.

While countless travelers, year after year, go up and down the Rhine, the sister river of the Rhine, far grander in many ways, is comparatively neglected. The Danube, second in size only to the Volga, is the most attractive river in Europe for picturesque scenery, historic associations, and quaint and varied populations of its banks. Germans, Austrians, Hungarians, Slavonians, Servians, Bulgars, Roumanians, all own in succession the mighty waters of the "beautiful blue Danube;" all are equally lost in admiration of its loveliness everywhere, and equally proud to possess some part of its rapid and ever-singing waters.

Its Scenery and the Life on its Banks

There is a peculiar charm about the birth of this wonderful river. Germany has the honor of nursing the infant Danube, but one of the oldest of German controversies centers round the question whether this or that twin stream is the baby Danube. For two very delightful villages, St. Georgen and Donaueschingen, claim the cradle of the river. Both are in the south of the great Black Forest, which, in the days of the Roman Cæsars, covered nearly the whole area of West Central Europe. From the elevation of 2850 feet above sea-level, among the wooded valleys and mountains, runs a tiny stream of clear water, tumbling over the moss-covered rocks. This is the Brege, which runs to St. Georgen.

Ten miles farther south another tiny brook chants the announcement of its birth and finds its way to the other village. This is the Brigach. A

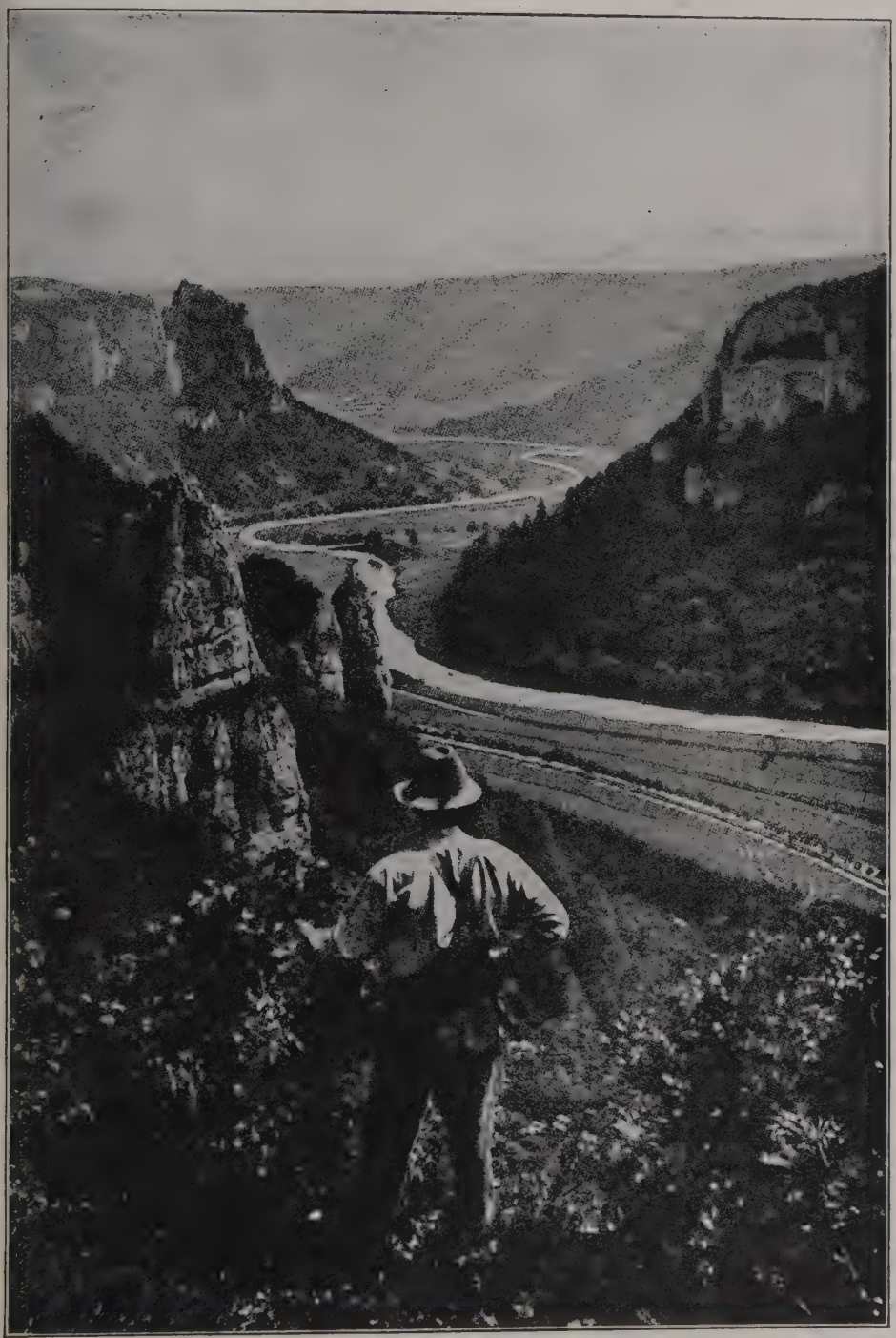
mile and a half below Donaueschingen the two brooks embrace each other and become the Danube. The people of Donaueschingen have enclosed the source of the Brigach in a handsome fountain basin inscribed so as to assure the traveler that that is the true cradle of the Danube, and they have also, in their own market-place, erected another finely sculptured fountain, adorned with dolphins, indicating an association with the distant sea. Above the Brigach springhead is a group of statues, representing Baar, the parish in which the tiny spring gushes up, clasping her daughter, the river, and whispering instructions for her journey.

The ancient Romans loved the Danube, and knew it from end to end; and as the people of Donaueschingen quote Strabo, so those of St. Georgen cite Tacitus in support of their claim to the true birthplace. But perhaps it does not greatly matter where the mighty river has its rise; certainly, it flows from the white swans and the storks of the Black Forest to the sturgeon of the Black Sea, 1750 miles away, and the area it drains with its many noble tributaries is estimated at more than a quarter of a million square miles. And what a series of matchless pictures it presents all along its way! What a panorama of history its romantic old castles unfold! It was for many generations the highway to Oriental lands. The Crusaders made the Danube their main track, and as we journey down its channel we find their memorials at many points, while the legends connected with one beauty-spot after another would fill whole libraries of books.

The history of the river begins, indeed, with the tiny streams, for the Donaueschingen folk delight to tell how Marie Antoinette, when a child of fourteen, rested in their little town on the way from Vienna to Paris for her marriage—and for the guillotine. And nearly every town or village has its place in history, so that our interest never flags. In their early courses the Rhine and the Danube are very near neighbors, for they are separated only by the Hegau, the picturesque extinct volcanic ridge which is the watershed of this part of the Schwarzwald. But while the Rhine rolls away northward, the Danube rushes east.

CASTLES ON THE PEAKS AND HAMLETS ON THE CLIFFS

While yet traversing a part of the Black Forest it runs between towering and castle-crowned peaks which speak eloquently of the stirring past. One of the most imposing of the ruined fortresses soars up over Tuttlingen, a little town at the foot of the Homburg. Here was born the famous author of that most popular of all German patriotic songs, "Watch on the Rhine," which is to Imperial Germany what the "Marseillaise" is to Republican France. The Danube is not navigable for steamers till after we reach Ulm, for there are no fewer than twenty-three dams and weirs obstructing the current between its sources and that city. But many boats and canoes ply between the villages, and the scenery is so enchanting that the way is like a path through a paradise. For the most part we pass by romantic villages at the feet of precipitous limestone cliffs, crowned with numerous castles that tell of the glory of the Middle Ages. Artists love to sketch Kallenburg, Wildenstein, Wernwag, Falkenstein, and many another splendid ruin on these cliffs and crags that tower over the Upper German Rhine as it makes its way from Baden to Bavaria. At Beuron is a famous and imposing monastery, where the monks



The Danube, rising in the Black Forest and flowing into the Black Sea after a tourney of 1700 miles, winds curiously in its upper reaches, as is shown in this fine panoramic view.

toil hard at haymaking and other pursuits of the fields.

ROCKY GORGES AND PASTORAL REGIONS OF ANCIENT ULM

And so we drift down-stream to one of the most notable spots on the Upper Rhine. For Sigmaringen, pitched very near the boundary line of the two States of Baden and Hohenzollern, is the residential town of Prince Hohenzollern. Its situation is of the utmost beauty, for the little capital stands imposingly on a high promontory. Forty miles away is the splendid castle of Hohenzollern, the seat of the Imperial Family of Prussia. We have come as far as Sigmaringen through a series of rocky gorges, and we shall come to even grander scenes in various parts of this mighty river; but here we enter on a pastoral region. On the banks are quaintly dressed peasant girls mowing or raking. Many of them wear curious, half-coned bonnets, slanting sharply back and brightly ornamented with fancy-work. Church spires of curious shapes are seen at frequent intervals, marking the places where quaint old villages lie in the peaceful landscape.

Who that has visited Ulm can ever lose the memory of it or the sense of its charm? It contains much of that delight for the eye so perfectly expressed by Goethe when he described architecture as "frozen music." It is one of the most marvelous relics of a past world that was absolutely different from the world of our own time.

The Danube becomes quite majestic as it rolls rapidly through this place, and here it first becomes navigable for small steamers, being considerably enlarged by its junction with the River Blau.

THE OLD TOWN WITH THE HIGHEST TOWER IN THE WORLD

Ulm is the second city in Würtemberg, Stuttgart being the capital. But the Würtembergers are proude of Ulm than of any other spot in thei fine State. The cathedral, the fa famed and magnificent Ulmer Dom is the largest church in the Germa Empire next to the cathedral a Cologne. The tower is the loftiest be longing to any church on earth, bein 530 feet high. Though the cathedra was begun in 1377, the incomparabl tower was not finished till 1890. Ul is full of quaint and pleasing building belonging to the Middle Ages. Th cathedral is a Protestant church, fo though nearly all South Germany i Roman Catholic, Ulm is an exceptio since the city accepted the Protestan Reformation, and the inhabitants be came followers of Martin Luther.

Just outside the city another strea besides the Blau reinforces the Dan ube. This is the Iller, which come along with a pale-green current. Op posite to Ulm is New Ulm, and this on the Bavarian side, so that now th Danube for some distance forms th boundary line between two importan States of the Empire. Here, at Ne Ulm, was in ancient days really th oldest Ulm, for it was at this spot tha the Romans had an important settle ment. Let us not forget another o the glories of Ulm, for here the ex traordinary poets and musicians calle the Meistersingers flourished longe than in any other region. Thes minstrels sang hundreds of years ag in a quaint but beautiful dialec and both at home and abroad the sang of love and Nature.

Ulm has seen tragedies in its hi tory. Here, in 1805, General Mac surrendered to Napoleon's army un der Marshal Ney, who thus becam famous, and won the title of Duke o Elchingen, and the Grand Eagle o the Legion of Honor. Elchinge the scene of the battle, is just belo Ulm. And this part of the Danub

had in other spots been long before stained with the blood of brave warriors. We soon come to two small towns, Hochstad and Blenheim, where decisive battles were waged hundreds of years ago. Then, in 1703, the Austrians were worsted on these same banks by the Elector of Bavaria; but in the next year there came to this same place the British ensign, carried by the forces of the Duke of Marlborough, who at Blenheim won one of the "fifteen decisive battles of the world," utterly shattering the Franco-Bavarian host.

"Had the French triumphed in this battle," says one of our historians, "Protestantism might have been driven beyond the Elbe; the Stuart race, and with them the Romish ascendency, might have been re-established in England; the fire lighted by Latimer and Ridley might have been extinguished in blood; and the energy breathed by religious freedom into the Anglo-Saxon race might have expired. The destinies of the world would have been changed. The Colonial Empire of England would have withered and perished, as that of Spain had done in the grasp of the Inquisition. The Anglo-Saxon race would have been arrested in its mission to overspread the earth and subdue it."

Just where the little River Nebel runs into the Danube was that fearful battle fought. Though the French army numbered sixty thousand, it was almost entirely destroyed. Yet the battle provoked Southey to the satire of his moving poem on Blenheim, in which he finely scorns the glamor of military glory, ending his strain in the well-known words of Kaspar:

> And everybody praised the Duke,
> Who this great fight did win.
> "But what good came of it at last?"
> Quoth little Peterkin.
> "Why, that I cannot tell," said he;
> "But 'twas a famous victory."

But the surging roar of the rushing Danube was soon again to be mingled with the boom of cannon and the shoutings of warring troops. What a series of storm-centers is encountered in quick succession as we pursue our way along the Danube through Bavaria! For a few miles farther down the stream is a lovely old town called Donauwörth, famous long before those Napoleonic days because of what happened when it was one of the many old Free Cities. In 1632 Gustavus Adolphus, the renowned King of Sweden, stormed Donauwörth, and two years afterwards it was captured by that cruel enemy of the Protestants, Ferdinand II, to whom Germany owed nothing but bloodshed, misery, and desolation. But the Protestants triumphed, and Ferdinand, who wanted to destroy the Reformation, died with his dream unrealized.

And now the broadening Danube for forty miles runs across the great Bavarian plains, through great acres of marshland which have been reclaimed, and are exceedingly fruitful now. All the land around echoes with the memory of stirring events. Perhaps no river on earth, indeed, is more sonorous with voices of a wonderful past than is this grand European artery.

Soon we are at the point where an affluent, the Lechs, is welcomed into the current. Just a little distance up the Lechs is the village of Rain, where the great opponent of Gustavus Adolphus, the aged Bavarian General Tilly, was mortally wounded.

We are going towards Vienna, and it is indeed a lovely journey from Ulm to the Austrian capital, stopping a while at the chief cities on the banks, as famous in history as they are delightful for situation. These are Ratisbon, Passau, and Linz. What memories the names call up! But

there are many charming little towns and fairy-like hamlets in between. On many a hillside the Bavarian soil is blazing with flowers, and forget-me-nots by millions make an exquisite floral fringe for mile after mile of the banks. If you should land for a few hours at Vohlberg, the storks of the town will be among the inquisitive inhabitants to greet you. Their flat nests on the high-pitched gables are among the curiosities of many a German town.

But here at Vohlberg, in 1641, everything was destroyed by the Swiss, and the old church tower is chuck full of great cannon-balls. Massive ruins tell how strong the place was in the Middle Ages. But what awful days were those which are often styled the "good old times!" These relics of bloodthirsty ages constrain us to repeat the Bible question, "How sayest thou the former days were better than these?"

Truly industrious are the peasant folk we find here-about. Most of the farm work is done by strong girls, who are almost as useful as men and are paid only about $25 a year. We see them toiling in pouring rain and in bright sunshine; these stalwart maidens seem quite indifferent to weather, clad in short skirts and tight bodices, with shawls on their heads. They will eat bread and milk with the visitors and chat with them like friends, so simple and pleasant are the natives of these villages on the Danube.

Quickly at Eining, a little cluster of houses on the right bank, we are near the remains of the great Roman frontier station Abusina, which, near the most northerly point of the course of the Danube, was chosen as the chief Roman outpost against the German barbarians. It was set up fifteen years before the birth of Christ, and was maintained for 400 years. Across the river are distinct traces of Trajan's Wall, which stretched from this spot to Wiesbaden, on the Rhine; and close by also is Vergen of the "Niebelungenlied," where King Gunther and his Niebelungen, those princes in the story who possessed the magic hoard of wealth that caused woe and tragedy, crossed the Danube. They were on their way to Buda-Pesth and the Court of Attila, King of the Huns.

Weltenburg, still in beautiful Bavaria, has an old Benedictine monastery, which contains a great brewery and a pretty beer garden, with a regiment of stone mugs. The Germans are great beer-drinkers, and are none the better for the growing habit, which is causing much uneasiness among thoughtful observers throughout the land. Multitudes of this splendid nation—as in our own land, too—eat too much, drink too much, and smoke too much.

We must land at Ratisbon—or Regensburg—exquisite in its Gothic details. This is one of the chief architectural glories of all Germany. The great market-place overflows with delicious fruit, sold for ridiculously low prices, in the height of the season. The Danube is here divided into two channels by a long, rocky island, on which rests one of the pillars of a queer old stone bridge. The river, being narrow, and impeded by four massive piers of the bridge, tears and rages through the channels as if in wicked fury, while rapids and whirlpools make the passage perilous for little boats. Then the river, reinforced by the turbid waters of the Regen, broadens greatly and settles down into comparative tranquility, falling only eighteen inches in the mile, while it pours its great volume through the chief grain-growing plain of Bavaria. This is the plain of Straubing. Now the Danube turns

round and changes from its north-easterly course to take a south-easterly track towards Vienna, which is 533 miles from Donaueschingen.

In this part of the stream we begin to encounter those great, rough, flat boats which carry heavy cargoes right down the river as soon as winter is over. In winter they would be all broken up, for so tremendous is the force of the current that nothing can sail, or be towed, up the Danube. Only steam traffic is possible for most of the way.

Donaustauf, a village in the midst of lovely woods, makes a fine picture, for on a hill behind it stands the Walhalla, a temple in the Doric style, built in 1842 in exact imitation of the Parthenon at Athens. This building is magnificent, inside and out. It was erected by King Ludwig I, in memory of all the famous men and women of the past in Germany. From a beautiful flight of steps we look over a marvelous landscape, which is one vast garden of fertile and highly cultivated country, through which the Danube runs like a thin, pale blue streak. Red-roofed villages, with onion-shaped church towers, make the prospect abundantly alluring.

The quaintest and strangest costumes are worn by the people of this region. The peasant women delight in queer skull-caps with enormous ribbon bows, and they wear stiff, gaudily colored bodices and short petticoats, and the men take great pride in their long vests adorned with rows of big brass buttons down each side from the shoulders. And as we sail down the river the children are playing among the flowers that deck the grassy banks, while sometimes graceful deer peep out from neighboring forests and bound up to the stream to drink.

As we go on we catch sight of flocks of birds that we might take for seagulls, but they are fresh-water gulls. At Straubing the river becomes rough again, and here and at pretty villages farther on, such as Deggendorf, Winzer, and Hofkirchen, many fine ducks are seen teaching their broods to feed in the shallow backwaters. And presently we reach one of the most attractive cities on the banks of the Danube.

Passau is indescribably beautiful in its situation. It stretches out in an immense promontory, almost like an island, and is connected with both shores by a fine bridge. Here three rivers meet, and make an extraordinary scene for us to admire as we view it from the hill on which the castle stands. For Passau is at the confluence of the lovely Inn, coming all the way from Innsbruck, in Tyrol, and the inky black Ilz, and the Danube itself. What a place of teeming historical relics in buildings and associations is this town! It was the Roman Bojundrum, built a hundred years before the birth of Jesus, and in the early Christian era it became the seat of archbishops as powerful as many kings. The cathedral is one of the finest German churches of the seventeenth century, and the sight of it reminds us that Passau was the scene of an event for which all lovers of liberty must be eternally grateful, for here, in an old house now a post-office, the Emperor Charles V and the Elector of Saxony concluded the treaty of 1552, which established religious toleration in all Germany. A little beyond we come to Linz, known for the delicious cakes called Linzer Torte. There are fine stone dykes about here on both banks, and the town nestles at the feet of a chain of pretty hills. Soon after leaving Linz we find the Danube enlarged by the crystalline stream called the Traun,

and next are the famous rapids and whirlpools, caused partly by the rocks and partly by the narrowing of the stream between the mountain cliffs, and greatly dreaded by the Crusaders in ancient days. But the river has in modern times been made passable by the blasting of the worst rocks in the bed. Now long, straight reaches of the river bring us to Ybbs, once a great Roman encampment, known in history as Isidus.

We are now in Austria, the country that is proudest of the Blue Danube. The grandest piece of architecture on the river comes in view as we sail on. It is the great pile of the Benedictine monastery at Melk, famous in song and story since its foundation 900 years ago. We pass it by, and sail along a glorious mountain gorge, between wild rocks and cliffs more savage than in any other Danubian pass. Jagged precipices rise, crowned with dark foliage.

It is an enchanting progress for many miles, and brings us to a place which must always be remembered in England's history. For suddenly the lofty towers of the ruined castle of Durrenstein lift their shattered battlements against the violet sky, on the crowning pinnacle of a stupendous rocky spur. It is the fortress where, from his dungeon the English king, Richard Cœur de Lion heard the strains of the harp played by the wandering minstrel Blondel.

Soon we are sailing past imposing hills on which rises the noble Göttwieg Monastery, and then some low islands are to be threaded, as so often in this great stream, and we notice Tulln, one of the oldest Danube towns, celebrated in history as the point where, in 1683, a great army gathered to save Vienna from the domination of the cruel Turkish sultan.

The most popular portion of the Danube is the long gorge called the Wachau, the narrow chasm through which the river has to force its way between wooded mountains and crag-perched ruins. Quaint old towns invite us to land, and great vineyards line the rocky mountain slopes. The people of Vienna come here for holidays. The Wachau is a marvelous mixture of mountain, forest, and vineyard, and many an old stronghold is planted on these crags. Nothing else in Europe can compare with this reach of the Danube. Robber knights were dreaded here in olden times. They had their fortress at Aggstein, 600 feet above the water, and in the "rose garden" of one of these knights was a dungeon with a trap-door, down which many victims were thrown.

We are coming near to Vienna, passing Mautern, a little town of many battle tragedies, where in 1484 the King of Hungary defeated the Austrians, and in 1805 the Russians retreated before the French. From the Danube we see the spires of Vienna in the distance, but that proud city is not on the banks of the river, being connected with it by a canal known as the Wien.

The traveler down the Danube will surely halt at Orsova, the last town in Hungary, and here he should take a delightful trip along the banks of that exquisite little tributary the Czerna, which runs along a valley of the Lower Carpathians, the mountains which separate Hungary from Roumania. Soon we reach, in the Czerna Valley, the Baths of Hercules, nestling with their sulphur springs in a nook which was famous in old Roman days. Back to the Danube again, we cross to Belgrade, but here there is not much to see. As we go down we think also of battles, for on the Servian shore stands Semendria, a Turkish

THE SWORD DANCE IN SERVIA

The Servian national dance is called the **kollo**, which means a circle, because the men and women hold each other by the hands, forming a circle. In the dance shown in this illustration, danced only by girls, the leader of the **kollo** wears a cuirassier's helmet and cuirass, and brandishes in her hand a cavalry sabre. Another girl carries a lance.

Bulgarian peasants crossing the Danube on a raft.

castle of the awful days, with eleven towers, that tell grimly of history and of tyranny now over forever. Turks, Austrians, and Russians fought for ages in this region, as Turks and Servians and Bulgarians have fought recently. The stream grows much swifter and stronger here, and four steersmen have to hold the wheel. The river widens after the famous Servian river Morava has poured into its bosom another flood. Now, here and there at little towns and villages, among curiously dressed peasants, we sometimes see a few veiled Turkish women wearing the "yashmak," showing only their brows and eyes.

Islands, one ten miles long, look like vast rafts. Some are, however, covered beautifully with trees and flowers. No one would expect that the broad river would yet again be constrained to pass through a tremendous mountain chasm, but we enter on majestic scenery in what is called the Kazan Defile. The Romans conquered it in subduing Dacia, now part of Roumania, and they cut a wonderful military road along the rocky sides of the precipices in the Emperor Trajan's days. These old works are among the engineering wonders of the world and again and again in these parts of the Danube we see the signs of the handiwork of man, especially at the rapids known as the Iron Gates, which are no longer formidable, now that the rocks have been blasted away by the engineers.

Opposite is Kalafat, where we land to take train for Bukarest, the quaint Roumanian capital, which looks more like an Oriental than a European city. And on the Bulgarian shore—where again we are in the field of war—is Nikopoli, where new beauties begin, for it is picturesquely situated at the feet of bold cliffs. The river is two miles wide here, and is variegated by islands full of water-birds and by many grotesque pelicans. Here, in 1396, came Sultan Bajazet, the "Thunderbolt," who overran Hungary and threatened all Europe. At Nikopoli he defeated an army of 100,000 men, who had boasted that if the sky should fall they would uphold it with their lances. Most of them were slain or drowned on that dreadful day for Christendom. Bajazet, after his victory, boasted that he would feed his horse on oats on the altar of St. Peter's in Rome, but he was soon destroyed himself by a fit of gout. The Turks, however, were lords of the Danubian provinces, and for many years a Christian traveler attempting to land in these places would be stoned back to his ship. Fine old cities, once Turkish, now adorn the banks of the noble stream, which here becomes like a sea studded with little islands, and at length, past Tomi, where the Latin poet Ovid spent his long years of exile, we are at Costanza, the port on the Black Sea. In St. Mary's Church at Galatz, another port, is the tomb of Mazeppa, who died here of poison long after his wild ride naked on the back of a horse, which Lord Byron's poem describes.

Near the Black Sea is the Serpent Island, so called from the hideous jet-black serpents seen here, often coiled together in the sunshine. Formerly it was called White Island from the hosts of white sea-birds living upon it. Here Achilles is said to have been buried, and here stands a temple to his memory. And the fable says that the sea-birds took the shrine under their care, each morning repairing to the sea, dipping their wings in the waves.

Be that as it may, there is poetry in the very air of these sweet places on the Danube, and the traveler who has seen them once will long to go again.

THE BRUSSELS PALAIS DE JUSTICE: ONE OF THE WORLD'S LARGEST BUILDINGS

BELGIUM

THE triangle of low land on the shores of the North Sea between France and Germany — lying in the grasp of these arms of the Rhine and about the lower courses of the Meuse and the Schelde where the great north plain of Europe is narrowest— has been known through history as the Low Countries, or the Netherlands, nether meaning lower. Small as the district is—not so large as Scotland— it has fallen into two distinct countries, occasionally united under one rule through the centuries. Holland, the hollow or marshy land, the northern and larger half, with its ragged coast, lies chiefly in the Rhine delta. Belgium, to the south, has but fifty miles of coast, and consists of the lowlands, drained by the Meuse and Schelde, and the highlands of the Ardennes, wooded hills about as high as the Cheviots.

It is a very favorite holiday trip now to go to the Ardennes from England. A quick passage of three and a half hours takes us from Dover to Ostend, and from there we can either make a tour round the splendid old cities, speaking vividly of the past, and closely dotted over the fertile and busy plain with its wide swelling rivers, or we can pass on to the beautiful walks and cycle rides, the fine views and interesting caves, the cool woods and bright streams, of the hills beyond on the southeast.

If we prefer a longer sea voyage we can enter Belgium by the estuary of the Schelde to Antwerp, a very great port, connected by rail and canal with not only the rest of Belgium, but with

the industrial towns of the Lower Rhine, about a hundred miles away, and easy of access to the places across the ocean which send Europe the raw material that it cannot grow itself. Bruges and Ghent, also deeply interesting old cities, are connected with Antwerp by canals, and Brussels, the capital, is in the center of the kingdom, so gay, and full of fine shops and handsome buildings, that it is sometimes called a miniature Paris.

Let us now, for awhile, leave the busy and populous Belgium of today, and glance at the story extending over 2000 years, of the struggles by which the Netherlands have not only in the end kept their small corner of Europe independent, but which have so strengthened and educated the people that, for centuries, they have been the world's teachers in most of the matters that are worth knowing.

The Low Countries formed but a dull, damp district, shut in by the gloomy depths of boundless forests when we first catch sight of them in the searchlight thrown by Roman civilization. For countless ages the rivers, which we see are very numerous all over the land, had been steadily bringing down slime and mud, and the wind and tide had been occasionally dispersing and destroying the banks thus formed. The early Celtic people who chose these shifting swamps for their home lived like beavers among the tangled brushwood on the islands at the mouth of the Rhine. The bravest of them were the Belgæ, who have left their name in Belgium, and, when the Romans came, several German tribes had pushed out the Celts. Among them the Batavians and the Frisians were celebrated for bravery and love of freedom and their determination to protect the land on which they dwelt. The Batavians proved of great use in the Roman armies.

In the fourth century, the Frankish tribes came swarming over the Rhine, and by degrees they absorbed the Frisians and the Batavians and the rest of the tribes living in the morasses and low plains, till at length all the country fell under the rule of the great Charlemagne. He left the people their native customs, and put chiefs over them as his delegates, whom they had to obey. Part of Charlemagne's plan was to give wealth and power to the bishops of the newly Christianized tribes, and for nearly a thousand years these prince-bishops were very important. After Charlemagne's death the great empire broke up, and under the weak rulers that followed, the independent nobles became ever stronger. There were the Bishops of Utrecht, where was the first Christian Church, the Counts of Holland—Holland being originally a province, which later gave its name to the country.

The Dukes of Brabant and the Earls of Flanders—William of Normandy took his bride from Flanders—were very important nobles as well as the lords of Hainault, which also gave an English queen. Other small states were Guelderland and Friesland. The old laws of the Frisians declare that the race shall be free, as long as the wind blows out of the clouds and the world stands, and this principle has always been kept in view even in times of overwhelming trouble.

THE RISE OF WEALTH AND POWER OF THE CITIES OF THE NETHERLANDS

These were the bad old feudal days, when the nobles were forever quarrelling among themselves, and, according to their opportunities, doing their best to take away the liberties of the people. The prince-bishops gained more and more power over men's minds, till no one dared to think for himself.

BRUGES—THE VENICE OF THE NORTH

A characteristic scene in the city of Bruges, the whole of which is intersected by canals. In the Thirteenth Century Bruges was the chief commercial city of Europe, but now it is a Fifteenth Century fossil.

We know how the rise of important towns has always helped on the cause of freedom, and though the towns in the Netherlands, are not quite so old as some in France, Italy, and Germany, most of them date from early times. When trade was set moving by the impulse of the Crusades, the towns of the great north and south route began to rise from small beginnings to wealth and power. In the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, the towns of the Netherlands did much business with the towns of the famous Hanseatic League. In the fourteenth century there were over 3000 woollen manufactures around Malines, now the center of the Belgian railway lines; Ghent had 40,000 weavers, and the goldsmiths of Bruges were numerous enough to form a regiment by themselves in time of war.

THE MAKING OF THE DUTCH RACE AND ITS GREAT FIGHT AGAINST TYRANNY

All this effort for generations produced a wise and determined race, few in numbers, and living in a small country, yet able to resist in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the fierce tyranny of the most powerful of the sovereigns of Europe.

A dark cloud began to grow over the Netherlands, when by seizure, purchase, succession, marriage of heiresses, the most considerable of its states passed under the sway of the Dukes of Burgundy. The crafty Louis XI had very much to say about this, and was at constant warfare with Duke Charles the Bold. From the daughter and sole heiress of this bad as well as bold man were wrested charters of privileges, commonly called the Great Charter—afterwards the

foundation of greater liberty by the first regular assembly of the States General, the members of which were sent from the provinces and great cities of the Netherlands.

This young duchess, Mary, married Maximilian of the Hapsburg family, Duke of Austria, and later Holy Roman Emperor. Their son, Philip, succeeded to his mother's dominions, and he married Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, elder sister of Catherine of Aragon.

This son was the famous Charles V, who gathered into his hand the rule of the Netherlands with that of Spain and Austria. All these countries hated each other, and the liberties of the Netherlands were in terrible danger from a prince who firmly believed that he had the sole right of disposing of the persons and lives of his subjects, as well as settling their faith and religion.

Charles, in spite of his wide empire, was always in want of money, and he required the rich cities of the Netherlands, especially of Ghent, to furnish it whenever he chose to ask for it, and when denied, took away all the charters and rights of those who opposed him, and fined and executed the citizens.

A MAN WITHOUT PITY, WHO SENTENCED A WHOLE NATION TO DEATH

His son, Philip II carried out his father's plan only too well, and when the unhappy people prepared to rise in revolt against his cruelties and extortions, he sent the Duke of Alva, a great soldier, and a man absolutely without pity, to suppress them. Almost the entire population of the Netherlands was sentenced to death without even the form of a trial, and people were suddenly seized and put to death without farther warning, till there was not a family who was not bereft.

A national hero rose up at this time, William the Silent, Prince of Orange. His ancestors had done good service to the House of Burgundy, and William was brought up under the eyes of Charles V. When the worn-out emperor laid down all his crowns to go into a monastery, it was on William's arm that he entered the great hall at Brussels, capital of the Duchy of Brabant, where the brilliant ceremony of renunciation took place.

William very soon ceased to be friends with Philip of Spain, though for years he was called his lieutenant; and after he openly became a Protestant he was the leader of the opposition to the bloodthirsty Alva. The patriots called themselves, at first in grim joke, the Beggars. Sometimes they won, especially at sea, sometimes the Spaniards had the best of it, and the struggle went on for many years under different governors and generals.

HOW THE MEN OF LEYDEN CUT THE DYKES AND SAVED THEIR CITY

Stories of the heroism shown in this war of independence are told of nearly every town, every acre of the Low Countries. The sieges of Haarlem and of Leyden are among the most memorable. Leyden held out a whole year, except for a brief respite, and the heroic defenders were reduced to awful starvation, but still would not give in. There were fights on the slippery ice in the bitter winter. As a last resource, the dykes were cut, and the water flowed over the hardly won fields, sending the Spaniards away in haste lest they should be drowned; but now the ships that had been waiting almost within sight could come right up to the walls of the town, bearing the precious food to the starving inhabitants.

HOW THE CHILDREN CRIED IN THE STREETS WHEN WILLIAM THE SILENT WAS KILLED

But scenes of war, of sacking fine cities, of senseless cruelty in persecu-

tion, could not last forever, and after several unsuccessful attempts at union among the provinces, and at making peace with Spain, in 1581, Dutch independence was declared. William the Silent, "Father William," as he was affectionately called, was the head of the new republic. It was nearly seventy years before Spain gave up all claims and titles, and acknowledged the complete independence of the Dutch.

Three years after the Declaration of Independence, the wisest man in Holland was murdered by a ruffian hired by Spain. As long as William the Silent lived he was the guiding star of a brave nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets.

War still went on under his son, Maurice, and the southern states, with their great towns of Antwerp and Ghent, and many others, were reduced to obedience to Spain for many years after the northern states became free. Protestantism had been stamped out, the brave Flemish workers had been driven away to Holland or to England, to their great and lasting benefit, and the subdued country lay in poverty and exhaustion. Ten years after the rout and ruin of the Armada, started by the fire-ships and the storm off the coast of Flanders, Philip II died, after a reign of 42 years.

It was in 1600 that Queen Elizabeth formed an East India Company to trade abroad, as all commerce had been so hindered by the ambitious plans of Spain. Holland followed suit two years later. Much money was spent on fleets and ports and factories; and from these days the sailors of Holland —trained in the wild fishing-grounds of the North Sea—were to be found all over the world taking possession of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, and often hotly contesting with the English. New Amsterdam, afterwards New York, was founded across the Atlantic, and to this day both city and people bear witness to the Dutch founders. The city of Batavia was founded in Java, called after the old island province, the kernel of the mother country, and the New Batavia is the headquarters of the Dutch colonial empire to this day. Amsterdam and Rotterdam and all the old cities now revived, as trade flowed in with the arrival of ships laden with "sugar and spice, and all that's nice," at the busy quays.

How the Lakes and Marshes were Changed into Rich Meadow Lands

As soon as peace gave leisure, pumping works were established to drain lakes and marshes, and the rich meadow land thus gained fed the finest cattle in Europe. Dutch butter and cheese have long been famous all over the world. Other uses to which the land gained from the sea was put were to grow roots for food and various kinds of hay, besides bulbs of beautiful flowers like tulips. The Dutch taught all Europe how to garden and farm. At this time, too, Holland became the printing-house of Europe, sending out thousands of books of history and travel, law and medicine. Trades, too, such as diamond-cutting—still largely carried on at Amsterdam—gave employment to very large numbers of skilled workmen. It was in the seventeenth century that the rivalry between the Dutch and English on the high seas came to a crisis. There were many famous admirals, many brave seamen on both sides.

In the age of Louis XIV, France made several conquests in the Spanish Netherlands which had passed to Austria, and Holland, too, had its share of French aggression. To save the country, the dykes were opened. Later, the waters froze, and when the French troops were marching over the

THE FAMOUS BATTLE OF WATERLOO, NEAR BRUSSELS, BETWEEN NAPOLEON AND THE ALLIES

The battle of Waterloo, perhaps the most celebrated in history, was desperately fought. Thousands of French riders, unable to check the mad rush of their steeds, plunged into a great ditch and perished. The defeated Prussians rallied and came to Wellington's aid and Napoleon's cause was lost.

ice to attack the Hague, a sudden thaw alone saved the country from destruction. The head of the republic at this time was the great-grandson of William the Silent. His name was also William, and he married Mary, the daughter of James II.

But the French Revolution was at hand, and before long the map of Europe was completely changed, and bewildering changes came to the Low Countries, both north and south. The seven united provinces were turned into the Batavian Republic, and a few years later Napoleon turned it into a kingdom for his brother Louis. But that did not last long. He soon took his brother away, and joined Holland and all the other provinces to France. "They are but the sediments of French rivers," said he, "and therefore clearly belong to me." The decisive battle, which confirmed the downfall of Napoleon, was fought at Waterloo, not far from Brussels.

THE BIRTH OF THE MODERN KINGDOM OF BELGIUM

When the Congress at Vienna remade the map of Europe, the whole of the Netherlands was joined into a single kingdom under another William, Prince of Orange. But the northern and southern provinces did not agree about religion—the south being chiefly Roman Catholic—and they differed on many other matters, too; so, in 1830, they revolted, and the old Spanish Netherlands, that were afterwards Austrian, became the Kingdom of Belgium, under a German Prince, Leopold of Coburg.

The northern provinces went on as the Kingdom of the Netherlands, or Holland, under the Prince of Orange. The descendants of Leopold and William are still on the thrones of the two countries.

Belgium made immense strides in the course of years, and is now one of the most densely populated countries in the world. The great coalfield of the north of France passes into Belgium where the railway lines are so thick, and there are mines of iron and zinc and factories of all kinds, where thousands of people toil hard. Liège, on the Meuse, is a great engineering center, and in many towns linen is made from flax grown in the neighborhood, and bleached with the waters of the rivers.

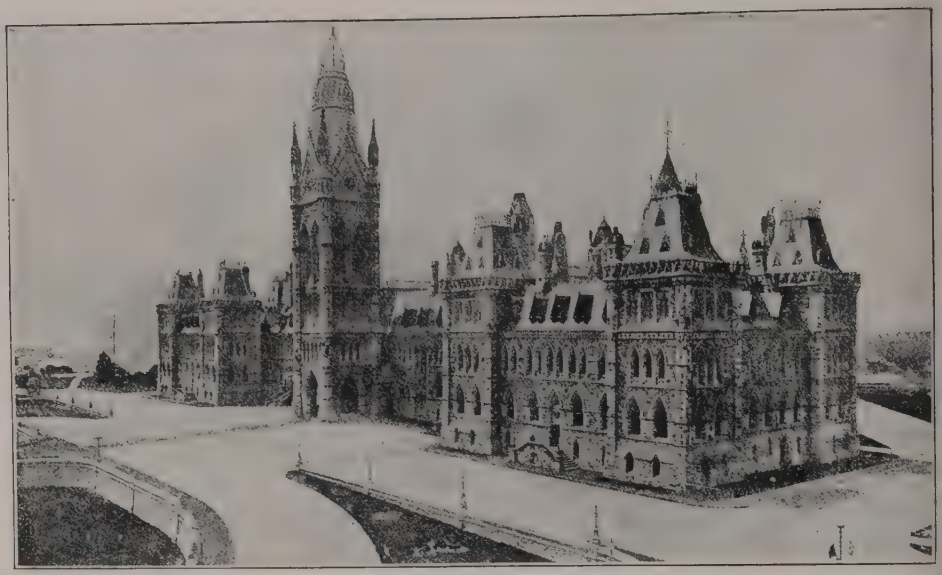
Ghent is the chief textile center, making both cotton and woolen goods. Great quantities of sugar are made from the beet roots that grow in the fields. Belgium is also famous for fine lace.

A WONDERFUL PRINTING-HOUSE THAT HAS REMAINED UNCHANGED FOR 300 YEARS

It is a wonderful sight to watch the shipping from all parts of the world at Antwerp, from whose quays and docks the industrious kingdom sends away a great deal of its work, and receives the greater part of its raw material.

Among the surpassing interests of Antwerp is the famous old printing-house, the Musée Plantin, with the types and tools all left in their places just as they were used in the sixteenth century when the firm of Plantin printed prayer-books for Philip II.

In the cities of both Belgium and Holland the story of the past is perpetually before our eyes. Fine cathedrals and churches, grand town halls and buildings of all kinds, together with the pictures and relics they contain, are like speaking witnesses which link the past with the present.



PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS AT OTTAWA

CANADA—THE LADY OF THE WHITE SNOW

FROM the June day, hundreds of years ago, on which John Cabot landed on "New-found-land," Canada has grown step by step into a mighty Dominion stretching from sea to sea. It is a nation within a nation, strong and prosperous in itself, and yet a part of the great British Empire.

Though hundreds of years before the time of Cabot the wild Norsemen had found their way to the American shores, the first to actually claim the land in the name of a sovereign power of Europe was Cabot himself. Where he landed he planted a cross with the arms of England carved upon it. The flag of England fluttered out to the sound of an English cheer as the brave sailor claimed the land for Henry VII, King of England and France, and lord of Ireland.

Cabot called the country St. John's Land, because he first came there on St. John's Day. The exact spot is not known, but it is thought to have been on the shores of Newfoundland.

After staying a little time, Cabot and his men set sail again, and turned their vessel homeward. The country that they had found seemed fertile and fruitful. But it was not the land of gold and spice, of gems and silken riches which they had hoped to find. So they returned with empty hands, and but little guessing upon what a vast continent they had planted the flag of England. They returned, little knowing that the people of England would carry that flag across the continent to the sea beyond, and that in days to come state should be added to state till the great Dominion of Canada was formed.

But although Cabot returned with empty hands, the King of England received him kindly. He was, however, "a king wise but not lavish." Indeed, he liked but little to spend his gold. So as a reward he gave Cabot

£10. It does not seem much, even when we remember that £10 then was worth as much as £120 now. Still, Cabot had a good time with it. He dressed himself in silk and grandeur, and walked about the streets, followed by crowds who came to stare and wonder at the man who had found "a new isle." Later, the king gave Cabot £20 a year. Not much more is known about his life, but it is thought that he, with his son Sebastian, sailed again—perhaps more than once—to the "Isle beyond the Seas."

Years passed on. England did little more than plant her flag in the New World, as the lands beyond the seas came to be called. Now and again indeed the English tried to found colonies. But the settlers sickened and died, and the attempts failed. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother of the famous Raleigh, was among the gallant captains who sailed the seas and claimed strange lands in the name of the great Queen Elizabeth. He landed upon the shores of New-foundland—the island which is still called by that name today. There he set up the royal arms of England, and, with solemn ceremony, taking a handful of soil in his hand, Sir Humphrey declared the land to be the possession of Elizabeth, Queen by the Grace of God.

So Newfoundland became a British possession, and thus claims to be the oldest of the British colonies.

How a Breton Sailor Came to Canada

It was in the reign of Henry VIII, when the country was in a turmoil as to who should be the head of the Church, and distracted monks were being turned out of their monasteries, that Cartier, a French explorer, having braved the Atlantic, sailed on and on, day after day, up the St. Lawrence, nearly 1000 miles in all, through forests glowing like gold in their autumn colors.

What courage and determination to face the lonely solitudes, till at last the red man and the white man met! No doubt both were equally alarmed and surprised at the other's appearance.

The Red Man and the White Man Meet in the Lonely Solitudes

"They must be Indians," said Cartier, as Columbus had said before him of the natives he met much further south. Both discoverers jumped to the conclusion that they had found the desired short way to the rich countries of the East, across the western ocean. little dreaming that the whole great continent of America and the Pacific Ocean lay between. Cartier describes how the "Indians" thronged round him and his sailors, wild with delight, like pleased children, and brought presents for their pale-faced visitors.

Before long, other French explorers followed. Montreal and Quebec were founded, and traders and missionaries pushed up the splendid waterways far into the interior, to get the valuable furs the Indian hunters had to sell, and to teach and civilize these wild men of the woods and forests.

For unknown centuries various tribes of the copper-colored natives, with their fine features and long, straight, black hair, had roamed at will over the wide continent, spending their time in hunting and fishing, and in fighting tribe against tribe. They have no history, no remains to tell of the far past, nothing but stories handed down from lip to lip, and a few circles of stones half buried in the earth.

It was not long before disputes arose between these old inhabitants and the French newcomers, and for long years there was ever renewed fighting, in which the red men had to give way more and yet more to the white men.

Emigrants came out by degrees from France to settle in the new colonies on

the banks of the river, and on the peninsula at its mouth which they called Acadia.

As time went on, the English felt that they wanted to do more in these regions than fish on the Newfoundland banks, and brave sailors tried again and again to find the Northwest Passage to the Indies, which they felt sure lay among the icebergs and snows of the Arctic Ocean.

THE BRAVE MEN WHO GAVE THEIR LIVES TO BUILD UP CANADA LONG AGO

The names of many of them lie scattered over the map of the north of Canada; too often they never reached England again, but died of hunger and cold in the white North.

A very pathetic picture comes to us from the days of James I, when Henry Hudson made three voyages in search of the desired passage, and discovered the great bay which bears his name. (See story of Henry Hudson.)

Some fifty years later, when Charles II was king, he gave to his nephew Rupert large grants of land round the shores of Hudson's Bay and power to form a company to trade in furs. Many rich men put their money together and built ships to carry goods out from England, and furs back from the Great Land of the White Snow. They also built forts in every direction, as more and more land was granted to them, to protect their clerks and traders and trappers.

They were exciting and stirring days then. Soon there was rivalry between the French Canadians and the English fur traders, and the Indians took sides; but it was all for gain, not for love of country.

How these visions of the past rise up before us as we study the map of today! There are the difficult-looking Indian place-names scattered all over the country, reminding us of those hardy hunters and trappers, of their swiftness of foot, endurance in following a trail, indifference to human life or suffering when on the war-path. We seem to see them hiding behind trees, shooting down the rivers in their canoes of bark, camping before the forts of the white men, who did much to ruin their lives by giving them "fire-water" to drink.

THE THRILLING TALES OF OLDEN DAYS AND BATTLES LONG AGO

The names of the forts—those of the French and also those of the Hudson Bay Company's—still remain to speak of the loneliness of these distant stations, where a few people lived to look after things and collect furs to send on to Europe. Many are the thrilling stories of those days; of a girl of fourteen who held a fort for a week against Indians; of seventeen young Frenchmen—their names are in an old parish register at Montreal—who, with five friendly natives, held at bay for five days 12,000 Iroquois Indians about to descend on Montreal and Quebec. They all lost their lives, but they saved the colony for France. The numerous French names all over the map recall those days when France had not only settled many villages, towns, and forts in Canada, but claimed the whole continent from Mexico to the Arctic, except the strip of Atlantic coast, some 200 miles in width, which then belonged to England.

The French bent all their energies to prevent these colonies of the coast extending west. They built forts to keep them back, and begged for enough soldiers from home to drive the English back and cure them of all wish to return.

HOW CANADA PASSED FROM THE FRENCH TO THE BRITISH IN A NIGHT AND A DAY

No wonder they were feeling anxious about their power. The Hudson Bay Company had been extending their

territory in the North, and after Marlborough's wars Acadia had been given up to England and renamed Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Many disbanded English soldiers then settled there, and Halifax was founded, which has a splendid harbor free from ice. How the French settlers were expelled from the beautiful country they loved so much, and how their troubles and wanderings ended, is all told in Longfellow's poem "Evangeline."

And now we come to the year when the struggle between France and England for the mastery in North America was decided. The preparations had been long and tedious, and the young General Wolfe was bitterly out of heart. We read under the French and Indian war how he had been sent to Quebec, and at last decided to make a night attack, and led his men up the steep rock which defended the town. The result of that noiseless climb, and the battle on the Plains of Abraham next day, was that Canada passed from the French to the English, for the forts and villages were too widely scattered to be able to join together and resist.

How French and British Live Happily Side by Side in the Great Dominion

The French Canadians, living contentedly under their ancient religion, laws, and customs, have proved themselves to be among the most loyal sons of the British Empire. They did not join the American colonists when they separated from Great Britain and formed themselves into the United States, some twenty years after Wolfe took Quebec. Many of the Americans who wished to remain under the old flag passed into Canada, where they were known as Loyalists. For about a hundred years these old French provinces were all the Canada there was, and they slowly filled up with Scotchmen, as we can see from the names on the map, as well as Irish and English. The Hudson Bay Company threw out its forts as far as Vancouver, and British Columbia began to attract settlers. They had a long and difficult journey to get there.

Then came the opening up of the rich corn belt of land that lies between the Great Lakes and the ranches of the Rockies, and the laying of the long steel lines that bind the West to the East. About forty years ago Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia united to form the "Dominion." Then the northwest territories were purchased from the Hudson Bay Company. Two years after that the province of Manitoba was added, then Columbia and Prince Edward's Island; afterwards the district on the Klondike where gold was found, and then Saskatchewan, Alberta, and other provinces near them.

The St. Lawrence River the Great Front Door of Canada

Today Canada is thirty times larger than the British Isles and has treble the population of the American Colonies at the time of the Revolution.

Its great front door is the splendid St. Lawrence River, carrying more water into the sea than any other river in the world except one. In winter this front door is closed fast by ice and then the steamers from Europe and America land passengers at Halifax, in Nova Scotia, or at some other port on the eastern shores where trains are waiting to carry them to where they wish to go.

If we should undertake a journey through this great empire in summer, the fine old city of Quebec would be an admirable starting point. Here we pass through what was once the heart of Greater France, the old province of Quebec. The Gibraltar of the New World, the town of Quebec,

QUEBEC, SHOWING DUFFERIN TERRACE AND THE CHATEAU FRONTENAC

towers far above the St. Lawrence River and a journey from there to Montreal by one of the palatial steamers, is one of the most delightful in the world.

Here at Montreal, a magnificent city of more than half a million people, we may begin an all rail pilgrimage across the continent. A truly wonderful line of railway it is that has opened up the New Canada and linked the Atlantic with the Pacific; and this great railway line links, let us remember, not only the two oceans, for behind the Atlantic is the old world, and beyond the Pacific is the Far East.

Traveling into the great lone land beyond the lakes

If we leave Montreal on Sunday morning, we eat, sleep, live in the train till Thursday night, and in that time we travel nearly three thousand miles to the shores of the Pacific. Till the main railways and their branches opened up the Great Lone Land beyond the lakes, and made it possible for people to travel in it and find out its great uses, this vast stretch of land was looked upon as good only for the hunter to roam over. Little was known about it except from the stories of adventurous travelers.

For twenty-four hours after leaving Montreal we pass through Ontario, the richest and most thickly peopled province in Canada. One of its most striking features is the group of five great lakes, all drained by the St. Lawrence. Lake Superior is large enough to hold Ireland; it is the largest body of fresh water in the world. Its waters connect with those of Michigan and Huron, and these, again with Erie and Ontario. No wonder the St. Lawrence River carries such a volume of water. Canals have been made where waterfalls and rapids prevent the passage of boats, so that there is continuous waterway for lake steamers for 1000 miles above Montreal, from Port Arthur on the farthest lake.

Western Ontario, north of Lake Superior and Minnesota is one of the few remaining sections of the country where one can still find the primeval

wilderness. It is the home of the *real* Indian, not the Indian of the motion picture shown on the one hand, or on the other, of the civilized Indian who poses as a "child of the forest," and proceeds to extract money from gullible tourists. It is the home of big game, for here the Canadian government has its game preserves—the Ontario Game Reserve, the Quetico Reserve and others. Here one can travel for weeks in a canoe and see hundreds of moose, deer, foxes and bears.

This region stretches 400 miles long and 200 miles wide. Until the Canadian Northern was completed, there was no method of communication except by canoe and snowshoe. It was in this country that a whole army was lost for months during one of the early Indian wars.

It is a country of thousands of lakes, for here are the sources of the Hudson Bay and Superior waters. Through this region run innumerable Indian and canoe trails; here we also find the old Dawson trail, the first white man's trail, made in the early part of the nineteenth century.

In this Rainy Lake district, this lakeland, the wilderness is making its last stand against the steady march of civilization. Here we still find the trapper, the voyageur, the forest ranger and the ever present frontier police.

Canada Shares the Glory of One of the Great Wonders of the World

A busy scene it is, with ships passing to and fro, for there are great ports on the United States side of the lakes, as well as on the Canadian side. The two countries also share one of the greatest wonders in the world between the lakes Erie and Ontario. There is a drop of some 300 feet between these two lakes, half of which is taken at one mighty plunge by the river which connects them. An island parts the immense volume of water into two falls. It is hard for us to realize the grandeur of the Falls of Niagara without actually beholding them. Imagine two great masses of water about three quarters of a mile broad, madly leaping down a height as great as that of the Capitol Dome, at Washington, the spray and foam rebounding in clouds as if the water were trying to find its way back to the top. No picture can give the thundering roar, nor the colors of the whole scene.

The tongue of land called the Lake Peninsula, lying between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario on the one side, and Lake Huron on the other, is part of the rich province of Ontario. Here many English have settled, making fine farms where the forest has been gradually cleared away. Great quantities of fruit, butter, and cheese find their way to the markets of the world from this fertile country. Many manufacturing towns, too, are to be found, and Toronto is a great center of trade.

The Great Forests That Make Canada Prosperous and Beautiful

The glory of the autumn woods of Ontario are far-famed, with their sunset colors on miles and miles of fine trees. Thousands of men are at work in these forests, cutting down trees and starting the logs and planks on their far journey into other parts of the world. They work in the winter, living in camps, and the noise of the axes, the hauling of the sledges piled up with logs over the frozen snow, turn the lonely forest into a lively, inspiriting scene. When the rivers melt in the spring, the waters carry the logs down the stream, and the force of water in falls and rapids is turned to account for working the saw and pulp mills.

A great deal of the lumber collects at Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, where the Governor-General lives; and on a fine hill are the Parliament

CANADA IN SUMMER AND IN WINTER

This is a summer scene by a lake in the Canadian Rockies. Canada has colder winters than ours, but the summer is better than ours, and the air purer. Grapes, peaches, melons and tomatoes ripen in Canada in the open air.

Winter is really winter in Canada. This is a winter scene in Montreal. In Canada the thermometer goes down 20 degrees or more below freezing point, but people then expect that degree of cold and prepare for it. The air is so dry and bracing that the cold weather is not nearly so trying as in lower temperatures of damp and mist. Snow-shoes and sleighs and toboggans make Canadian winter days merry for young people.

THE GREAT NATURAL WEALTH OF CANADA

HOW THE TIMBER LOGS FLOAT FOR HUNDREDS OF MILES FROM THE FORESTS TO THE MILLS

A SHEEP RANCH ON THE GREAT PRAIRIES OF WESTERN CANADA

LOADING SALMON IN BRITISH COLUMBIA, FROM WHERE MILLIONS OF TINS OF SALMON COME

Canada is rich in minerals, in forests for timber, in land for herds of cattle and flocks of sheep and crops of all sorts: and her rivers teem with fish. These three scenes show something of Canada's wealth. At the top is a mass of timber roughly cut up into the logs from the forests, floating for hundreds of miles along the rivers to the saw-mills. Next we have a view of a sheep farm which a few years ago was a wild prairie. The third shows us a picture of the salmon-fishing industry. The waters of British Columbia are the home of so many fish that she can spare nearly 1,500,000 cases of salmon, containing many millions of tins, every year.

Buildings. Each province has a small Parliament of its own to attend to its own affairs, and all are represented in the one great Parliament at Ottawa, which manages those matters in which the whole country is interested. The Governor-General is sent out from England to represent the King.

SHINING RAILS THAT CARRY US INTO THE LARGEST WHEATFIELD IN THE WORLD

But the train has been ever speeding west while we have been talking of the wonders of Ontario; and now for many hours it rushes along the northern shores of Lake Superior, often in sight of its wide waters and the piers and wharves of its ports.

From Ontario we pass into Manitoba, once a lonely prairie land, but now growing rapidly into the largest wheatfield in the world. Think of all the large wheatfields you have seen, put together and added to, until they are hundreds of times bigger than the biggest, and you will gain some idea of these boundless level fields of grain, stretching like the sea out to the far-distant horizon, under the whole great arch of the sky. As the train throbs on and on, hour after hour, it seems like a great living conqueror, so completely has the presence of the shining rails changed the face of the country. The deer and buffaloes are gone, and the hunting Indians who lived on them have almost gone, too. Here and there are the Reserve Lands where they put up their tents and live with their fast little ponies.

They are urged to learn to work and to farm, and their children are taught in schools and are helped with food and clothing. Now that the buffaloes are gone which they used to hunt, and which provided them with nearly everything they needed, they must learn to live as white men do, or suffer great want and wretchedness.

THE CHANGE THAT HAS COME OVER THE INDIANS SINCE THE WHITE MEN CAME

One feels very sorry for the Indians, who have changed greatly since the white men first set foot on the banks of the St. Lawrence River, about 500 years ago. Now the "Pale Faces" have come in thousands, brought by the great iron horse. Setting up their homesteads, they plow, sow, reap, and carry the precious food for the millions in hungry Europe, and when time serves they build bridges and make railway lines as these things are needed. Winnipeg, the capital of this wonderful country, was but a small outpost fort a few years ago; now it is a large, handsome city. At the stations in this part of the line are the tall elevators, rising like lighthouses out of a billowy sea, in which the corn is cleaned and stored till it is taken away by train.

But the train, like an unwearied giant, thunders along, till at last the great level wheat lands are left behind, and the country changes, rising in slopes covered with fine, juicy grass, spangled with many-colored flowers. Two huge provinces are passed, chiefly given up to ranching, where cowboys —wonderful riders—look after great herds of cattle and horses. Towns are springing up, and fresh lines of rails like giant fingers stretch over the land to serve the newly-made farms.

Then the country grows wilder, and at last the Rocky Mountains are in sight. Now, indeed, the train seems like a courageous live creature, plunging fearlessly into dark valleys, over roaring torrents, around the edges of steep precipices, through inky-black tunnels.

THROUGH THE WILD ROCKY MOUNTAINS TO BRITISH COLUMBIA

At its highest point the line reaches the height of nearly five thousand feet, and above us tower the white

peaks and glaciers of the highest Rockies, over 12,000 feet above sea level. Three ranges have to be crossed. People often stay to enjoy the splendid scenery, for there are fine hotels, and a grand national park, 26 miles long and 10 miles wide.

But our journey is nearing its end, and the train rushes through the valley of the Fraser River, and at last pulls up at the Pacific end of the line at Vancouver, the capital of the most western province of British Columbia. This mountainous province has an area of more than 380,000 square miles. Since the railway joined it to the East, many more people have gone to live in it; and it grows more and trades more every year. Its natural riches are of every kind: coal and other minerals, and fish, especially salmon, in the rivers and on the fiord-like coasts. In the forests are the far-famed Douglas firs, often 300 feet high. All kinds of fruit ripen in the fine farms here, especially pears; and great quantities of fruit are exported annually from this part of Canada.

THE COLD AND DREARY LAND OF GOLD AND THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND

A branch of the great railway line runs up to Dawson City, on the Klondike, near the Territory of Alaska. This is the farthest north that the railway goes in Canada; it was needed in this case, because gold was found in this cold, dreary region.

If we were to look at the map of America north of the United States. The whole of this immense stretch of the mainland, together with the islands in the three oceans that border it, make up British North America, slightly larger than the United States, rather less than Europe.

The island of Newfoundland, nearly as large as England without Wales, stands like a sentinel at the great front door to Canada. This island is not yet part of Canada. It is larger than Ireland, and depends on the fisheries of its coasts, chiefly on the banks, where the water is shallow, as in the North Sea. Now, however, great paper-mills are being set up in Newfoundland, and the newspapers that the boys and girls of today will read when they grow up may be made from trees grown in Newfoundland.

THE NATURAL WEALTH THAT IS BEING DEVELOPED IN ALL PARTS OF CANADA

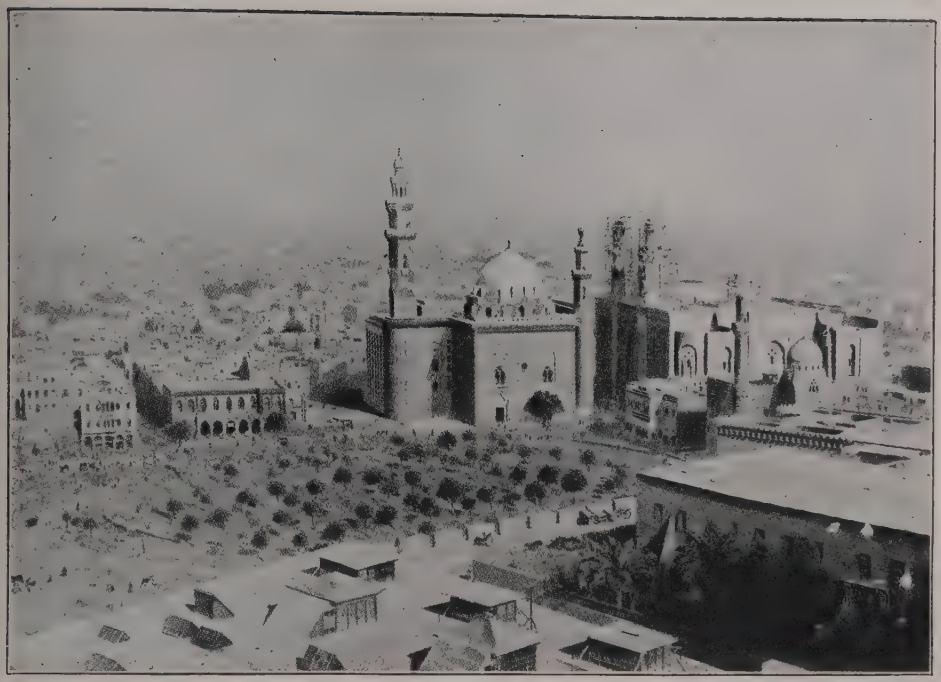
It was the fish, fur, and timber that were first valued in Canada; later were discovered the suitability of its soil and climate for raising stock, for farming, for fruit and wheat growing. The riches hidden under the soil next attracted attention, and now, as the population grows, manufactures of all kinds are starting to use Nature's gifts, and supply the needs of the people.

If we try to see before us a picture of the wealth of Canada, there is the blazing yellow of the corn, the glow of rosy apples and ripe fruit, the golden butter and cheese, the silvery salmon. These, with the grand woods of the forest trees, in shiny glossiness or in powdery pulp for paper, all stand out in splendid profusion from the land of the maple leaf and the beaver.

It is not yet 150 years since Montcalm and Wolfe laid down their lives at Quebec, and the French speech and appearance of more than a million people in old Canada, as well as their picturesque towns and villages, make the old days seem very real.

Perhaps, as we think over the immense changes brought about since those old days, we shall find it hardest of all to realize that most of them are so very recent, for it is not yet 50 years since railways began to draw together places at vast distances from each other, and open up trade and travel.

The white line shows the railway between the Cape and Alexandria



VIEW OF CAIRO, EGYPT

A WONDER JOURNEY THROUGH AFRICA

ONE of the greatest romances of all time is being written in iron and steel from end to end of the African continent, where men are slowly building up a line of communication which we call the Cape to Cairo Railway. The very name of the railway is thrilling, for it means piercing the heart of this vast, mysterious continent. It will stretch for a distance of over 5600 miles, more than a fifth of the entire circumference of the earth; it will link together by the bond of civilization varying conditions such as can be found nowhere else in the world. The work itself will represent the highest skill of the foremost engineers in the world, reaching into places where civilization has hardly yet begun to dawn.

At the Egyptian end the railway will pass through the Land of the Pharaohs. It will pass—indeed it already passes, for the Egyptian part is complete—through scenes in which the earliest civilization developed — where men built great cities and wrought sculptures which are still among the chief wonders of the world. It will pass through the scenes of the life of Moses; it will carry grain and riches and means of life across the land which Joseph saved from famine; and it will touch, at Alexandria, the place in which, as far as we know, steam was first made the obedient servant of man.

The great engines will snort and puff and draw their heavy loads where Hero used to walk, the Hero who invented the first steam-engine, and made it open and shut the doors of the temple, so that the astonished people imagined that spirits turned the wheels.

Now let the mind leap forward two

thousand years, and see how little the uncultured human mind changes. When Lord Kitchener was building his railway in the wild Sudan, his work was watched by men such as had come, after the last of the Pharaohs, under the sway of the Greeks and Romans. The ancestors of these men thought that Hero had imprisoned a spirit in his little engine working at the temple. And the Arabs watching Lord Kitchener building his railway thought exactly the same, one old Arab chief solemnly protesting to Lord Kitchener that it was cruel to make the spirit in so small an engine drag so many trucks! At the same time, at the other end of the continent, the railway was built in Matabeleland, where black, naked warriors dwelt in childish simplicity.

What thought they of the white men's fire horses? To them the engines and their moving trains represented so many teams of oxen caged inside. When the trains stopped, the natives waited with wonder and excitement. "Why don't you let the oxen out?" they asked, imagining that the white men had chained up bullocks inside the engine and made them drive the trains. Old Hero, in his Alexandrian workshop, was two thousand years before his time—the children of the desert and the children of the forests are two thousand years behind. Yet the railway is for them, and could not have been built without their aid.

The contrast between these two kinds of people give us a clue to the changing scene through which the great line passes—just a clue and no more. For, starting in the north, where Egypt with its buried treasures lies, the line goes south across historic battlefields, where teeming armies fought for thirty years and Gordon fell a martyr. The shining steel runs on and on to the great lakes of Equatorial Africa; it passes through dim forest lands where pygmies dwell; it rushes through the haunts of lions which sometimes try to tear the drivers from the engines, through the homes of the rhinoceros and hippopotamus, and past places where jackals and hyenas howl at nights and mumble the bones of dead giraffes. It passes the graves of 30,000 poor, foolish people who, on the advice of their witch doctor, slew their cattle and left themselves to perish, because the medicine man had told them a god would arise from the earth to drive the white men to the sea and give their riches to the natives. It touches a lake three-quarters the size of Ireland, and another 2670 feet up in the air. It crosses the mighty Zambesi near the matchless Victoria Falls, where the sun makes rainbows all day long in the spray.

FROM LANDS OF SAVAGERY TO LANDS OF GOLD

It rushes from savagery and the silent splendors of Nature to the lands of gold and diamonds, and finally it comes to the end of its journey at the foot of the continent, at Cape Town, with the blue waters of the Atlantic tossing and heaving as they tossed and heaved when Cleopatra was queen of the north, and the south was wrapped in mystery and terror which no man dare explore.

That is the Cape to Cairo Railway, not as it is, for it is not yet completed, but as it will be when the links now missing are forged. But it will never, perhaps, be a continuous line. No single train will go the whole way. For even when the line is finished we shall leave the train and sail some distance on the great inland waters, on lakes and on the bosom of the Nile. While this great railway backbone for a continent is being built from north to south, lines running east and west

will serve to link it up with other parts. The Uganda Railway is already complete, running from Mombassa, on the southeast coast, northwest to the inland sea which we call Lake Victoria Nyanza, a body of water 26,000 square miles in extent.

THE GREAT DREAM OF DAVID LIVINGSTONE IS NOW BEING REALIZED

On the west coast a line runs inland from Lobito Bay, in Portuguese Angola. So far 250 miles of this line have been built, and it is being hurried on to join a branch of the Cape to Cairo Railway at Kambove, in the Katanga district of the Congo Free State. The line from Lobito Bay will be more than a tributary of the greater line. It will be carried on to link up with a railway already running inland from the east coast at Beira. With that complete we shall for the first time have a line actually crossing Africa.

One of Livingstone's dreams will be realized when that is accomplished. When he was on the first of his great journeys through the land of mystery, he came upon a mighty river, 300 yards broad, right in the heart of the country. To his joy he found that it was the Zambesi, which had been supposed to rise hundreds of miles to the east of this point quite near the east coast. "Now I know there is a water way to the east coast," he said. But he did not follow it at once. He turned his face to the west. "I must find a highway from the west coast," he said, "for it is to the west coast that English ships will come, to bring money and goods in exchange for the things the natives have to offer. Once a proper trade is established, we shall end the slave trade."

LIVINGSTON'S LINE OF STEEL

He knew that regular commerce would prevent men from selling their women and children to the slave-dealers, and he knew that by finding a highway and establishing a proper route the brutal slave-raiders would no longer dare to carry fire and sword into the secret places of the land, to burn down villages and carry their people away captive. When he had found his way out on the west coast, Livingstone turned about and marched across the continent to the east coast, and it is thrilling to know that the first railway across the continent will follow practically in his steps. Lobito Bay, on the west coast, is near Loanda, where Livingstone came out: Beira, on the east coast, is near Quilimane, where he found himself after his great march to the east. He yearned for a railway along that route. It is coming, building fast.

The making of these railways in Africa stands for more than anything that has been done by engineers before. The line runs through deserts where there is no water. It runs across rivers and gorges and chasms. It runs up hill, down dale, and skirts mountains; it goes through forests and thickets where only wild beasts and wild men have their habitations. For a great part of the way the line has followed the track of men who went on just ahead, surveying and mapping a way as they traveled. The route for the railway was planned while the line was actually being built. Material has had to be made in England, Scotland, and Wales, bridges built in England and put up, then taken to pieces and packed in boxes and sent to African ports to be carried up country by bullock wagon, by railway, and by caravans of porters. Every tool has had to cross the sea, every engine has been carried out in pieces and put together on the spot. Mysterious illnesses have seized the engineers, sleeping sickness and deadly fevers have attacked the men;

The new homes—A modern village sprung up along the railway

The old homes—Huts of a wandering tribe near the railway

lions have killed and carried off scores of workers, the terrible "white ants" have eaten the telegraph poles and railway sleepers; elephants have knocked over engines, and natives have been hostile and dishonest. War has raged at both ends of the line since the work was started. The whole history of the colonization of this vast continent has, indeed, been compressed into the story of the building of this line.

In spite of all these difficulties the work has gone steadily on, until now, starting from the Cape, the line runs northward to Elizabethville, 2300 miles from Cape Town, and, starting southward from Cairo, the line runs for hundreds of miles south of Khartoum. It needs but the addition of about 900 miles of railway to enable anyone to travel by steam from one end of the African continent to the other.

Let us see what the route actually is. We start from Cape Town, and run up through Cape Colony to Kimberley, in British Bechuanaland, on to Mafeking, and across the Kalahari Desert to Bulawayo, in Matabeleland, which is now part of the vast territory called Rhodesia. Then we turn northwest and cross the Zambesi at Victoria Falls, after which we bear to the northeast and run right up Northern Rhodesia until we come to what we will call its middle boundary. Here, for the first time, the line leaves British territory. It strikes northeast into the Congo Free State up to Elizabethville, and there, for the moment, it stays.

At the northern limit of the western half of Rhodesia, there is a wedge of the Congo Free State dividing British territory. This great Congo State belongs to Belgium, and continues side by side with the western frontier of Northern Rhodesia, then along the left or west bank of Lake Tanganyika, right away to the southern boundary of the Sudan. But at the northern end of the lake it marches side by side with British East Africa, in which Uganda is included. Now it is proposed that Belgium shall give Great Britain a narrow strip of land along the western shore of Lake Tanganyika, so as to run the railway on British territory right to the lake. Lake Tanganyika itself is open to the vessels of all nations, so that we can continue our journey by steamer to its northern limit, after which we should use Lake Albert Nyanza and other watercourses in the same way, thus reaching British East Africa and then the Sudan. From here we have the splendid Nile waterway, on which steamers are always plying, until we reach the railway which takes us into Khartoum, now a marvel of civilization, once the great slave mart of the Sudan. From Khartoum we ride the whole way by train to Cairo, and our wonderful journey is at an end.

It is necessary now only to bridge the distance between Rhodesia and Lake Tanganyika, and to fill in one or two other gaps, and the line through the heart of wealth and splendor, through savagery and wilderness, through terrors and mysteries all wonderful, will be finished.

THE GREAT MAN WHO LIES ON THE HEIGHTS OF THE MATOPPO HILLS

It is a dazzling scheme, and the world owes it mainly to one man, Cecil Rhodes, who now lies buried in a stately tomb on the heights of the Matoppo Hills, past which the railway runs. Rhodes, an Englishman, went to South Africa as a young man and an invalid, recovered his health in the fine bracing climate he found there, engaged in gold and diamond mining, returned home and finished his education at Oxford Uni-

versity, then went back and gave himself entirely to the development of South Africa. When he took up railway building, the line extended only to Vryburg. He raised money and carried it first to Mafeking and then on to Bulawayo, which, until a little while before, had been the head village of a terrible Matabele warrior, King Lobengula.

It is now the capital of the great territory of Rhodesia, which, with its 440,000 square miles, nearly equals the area of Germany and Austria-Hungary put together. After reaching Bulawayo, Rhodes had difficulty in raising money enough to carry on the work, for the cost was enormous, even to a millionaire, as he had then become.

Where the great Zambesi River falls into a yawning gulf

But, little by little, the work grew. Here a goldfield was discovered, here a copper-mine, here valuable coal or other minerals were found. The line was thus drawn this way and that, simply to tap districts rich in metals, and so make it pay as soon as possible. This accounts for the strange way in which the railway zigzags on its long course. It was the existence of a valuable coalfield at Wankie that drew it far to the west from Bulawayo. At first it was intended to build only a small branch line here, but ultimately it was decided to make it the main line, and, that determined, there lay ahead the great Zambesi and the Victoria Falls.

There was no turning back; the river had to be spanned. That being so, the line was made to cross, at its narrowest point, within sight of the falls, the largest in the world. There is one waterfall in British Guiana higher, but not so wide. The Victoria Falls are a mile wide and 400 feet high. We should expect that there would be a great drop in the land below the falls, but that is not the case; the banks of the river are the same height above and below. The river falls into an enormous crevice in the earth, descending with a noise like thunder into a deep but very narrow fissure, throwing up clouds of spray, so that natives, who used to be afraid to approach before Livingstone discovered the falls, named it "The Smoke that Sounds."

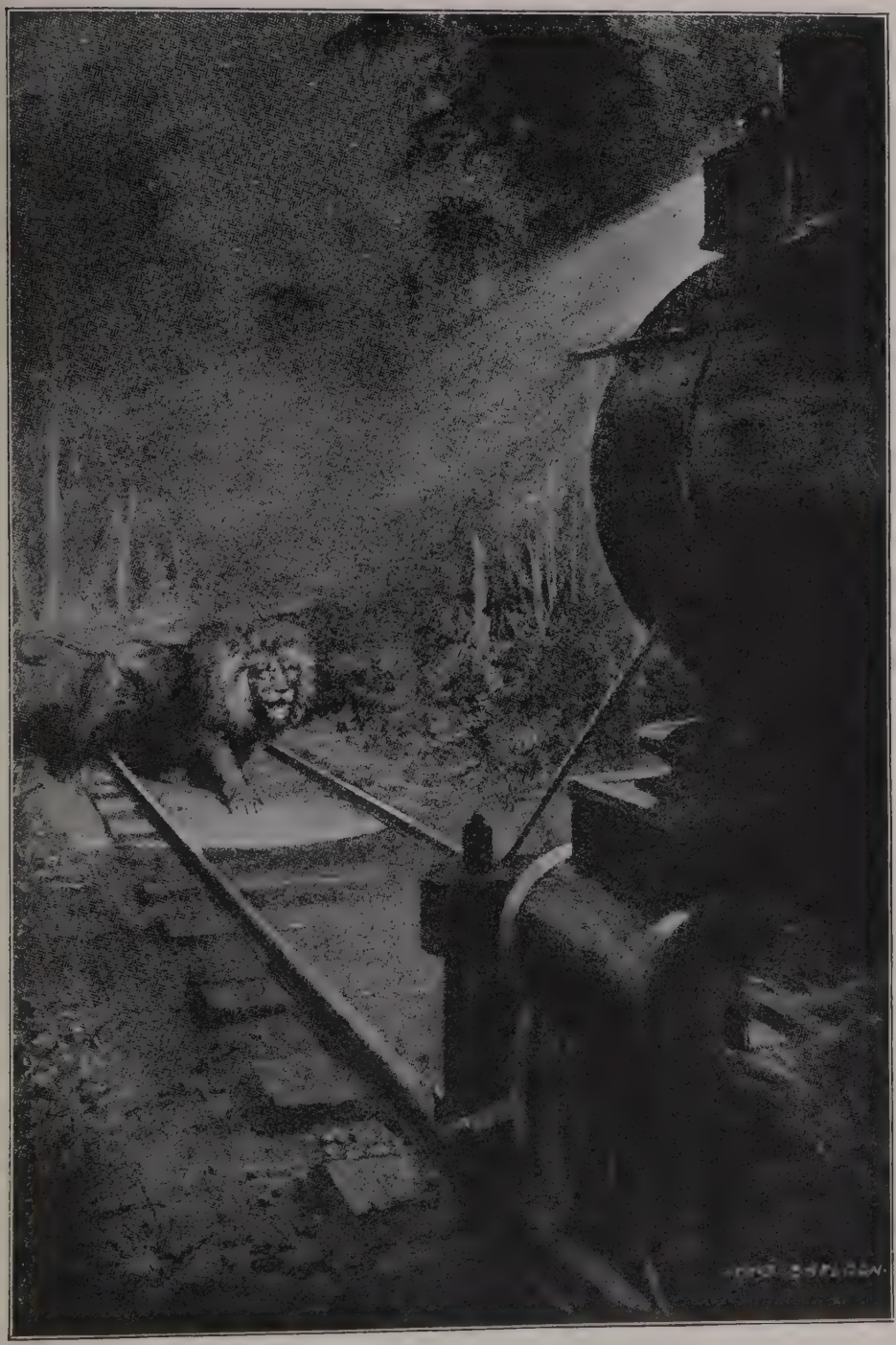
A magnificent piece of engineering threw a great bridge across this narrow chasm. First a small electric station was set up at the foot of the falls, the power from the running water supplying energy to drive the plant. Then a wire cable was hauled across the river, and suspended over the gulf. Across this, loads upon loads of material were sent over, ten tons at a time.

How a steam-engine was packed up and carried along a wire

A steam locomotive was sent across this carrier, a piece at a time. When all was ready a hundred native laborers under twenty-five engineers, were set to work, building out the bridge from the two sides of the gorge at once. It was built as regularly as clockwork, the great steel arms growing out from both sides simultaneously. The work was begun in October, 1904, and was finished in nineteen weeks, perhaps the quickest piece of bridge-building on record. As the bridge neared completion there was much excitement, for the least mistake would have been serious, but the two halves met exactly; there had not been a miscalculation of an eighth of an inch. The bridge is the highest in the world, 420 feet above the boiling water below, and is 650 feet in length.

That was not the only exciting piece of work on this part of the line. When the River Kafue came to be

KING OF THE FOREST WAITS FOR THE TRAIN



The "African Limited" flies through the jungle in the stillness of the night

crossed there was great difficulty in getting the native workmen to go down in the hollow steel piers which were sunk in the water. It seemed too terrible to them to work under a river, and when they did go down, and a little water leaked into the piers, they fled in a panic of fear. There was no electric cable for this river, but before they got their bridge built the engineers wanted a locomotive on the other side. They ferried it across entire on a gigantic pontoon.

But worse than water and its bothering ways were the wild animals. Once a great rhinoceros, annoyed at the sight of a little engine puffing about, took it into its head to charge the locomotive. The engineer, seeing the animal coming, put on steam and fled, but not soon enough to prevent the rhinoceros from catching the caboose with its mighty horn and tearing half of it into splinters.

At another place a herd of elephants used nightly to cross the line to go to their drinking place. All went well until one night something disturbed the temper of the leader of the herd, and, with a shrill scream of anger, he charged at the engine and knocked it off the line. But as it fell the engine imprisoned the elephant, holding it down by the foot, so that the lord of the herd had to be shot before the engine could be set right.

Lions, however, were the greatest source of terror. On one occasion a full-grown male, roused from his nap by the whistle of the train, dashed at the engine and tried to claw it. Failing to get a grip, it fell off, but returned to the charge again and again, each time getting out of harm's way as it fell, until at last the engineer rushed his engine at the lion and killed it.

Far worse than this, however, were the experiences of the builders of the Uganda line. The camps of the workers was besieged night after night by man-eating lions. Every night a man, perhaps two men, would be carried off. It was in vain that men sat up to keep watch; the lions were too cunning to be caught by traps, too wily to go the way by which they seemed to know they were expected. Fires were kept burning, but the lions would leap over them; great defences of thorn bushes were set up, but the lions got through or over them. Every night the camp resounded with dreadful cries as some unhappy victim was seized and carried from his bed to be eaten in the long grass. At last the natives became so terrified that they refused to go on with the work unless surrounded, day and night, with iron entrenchments. With the British Empire behind them, the builders of the railway were helpless in the presence of two man-eating lions, for there were but two of them at this point. For three weeks not a tie was laid, not a rivet was driven; the whole camp was under fear of death from the lions.

It might be generally supposed that the coming of the railway leads to the extinction of wild life in a new country. No one is allowed to kill an animal within a mile of the line, and the result is that the neighborhood of the railway has become a sort of sanctuary for them. Lions and other animals have increased greatly in numbers. They have learned now that they have nothing to fear from the railway, and they increase in peace.

Uganda is the home of sleeping sickness, which medical men are now studying on the spot. Sleeping sickness is caused in man by the bite of a mosquito carrying a deadly germ, and this mosquito can only be hatched

in water or damp places. What the railway authorities have done is to prevent anybody from living within two miles of the lake—the great Victoria Nyanza—and all around the banks of the lake, where the railway runs, they planted sweet potatoes.

THE FIGHT AGAINST AN ENEMY WHICH DESTROYS THOUSANDS OF LIVES

These kill off the swampy growths which formerly existed, dry up the soil, and make it no longer possible for the death-dealing mosquito to breed there. In such simple ways do men of science check a disease which has slain hundreds of thousands of people within a few years. Of course, the Uganda Railway is not on the route of the Cape to Cairo, but it is a very important feeder of the continental line, and can easily be reached from the Sudan. It is a wonderful piece of work.

The Cape to Cairo Railway is a great help in the peaceful development of Africa. But war has followed its track. The southern part of the work was interrupted by the Boer War; the northern half was begun for the purpose of war. Before 1882 Egypt had for sixty years been gradually extending her influence over the Sudan, but then for sixteen years a Dervish fanatic, called the Mahdi, and the Khalifa, who had been one of his officers, held the country in a desolating tyranny. They closed the Sudan to civilization; they massacred, made slaves, blotted out whole communities, and turned the Sudan into a wilderness. General Gordon, who had been sent out by the British government to rescue the native Egyptian garrisons and those dependent upon them, was besieged in Khartoum, and finally slain there. British forces sent to punish the offenders were cut to pieces, and affairs were dreadful until Lord Kitchener appeared upon the scene.

He had to break the power of the Dervishes. His starting point was Cairo, but the Khalifa's stronghold was 1200 miles south, across waterless deserts. All the king's horses and all the king's men could not have reached the enemy, for food and water and stores had to be carried all the way. So Lord Kitchener built a railway, and carried his army along it. He had to fight tremendous battles on the way, so that his men may be said to have worked like the builders of the Temple, with a trowel in one hand and a sword in the other. The railway began at Wady Halfa, and was laid on to Khartoum, and the line was constructed as a pathway for an army is now part of the northern link in the chain which is to join Cairo to the Cape.

Such are some of the features and history of this marvelous undertaking. There are thousands of people in Africa who have never seen a cart, whose first journey will be taken by a railway train. Hitherto African travel has been mainly on foot, sometimes in ox-wagons, rarely on horseback. Travelers have been carried in hammocks, slung over the shoulders of negroes; they have crossed rivers and lakes in boats which the hippopotamus has delighted to toss into the air; they have tramped on foot for weeks together through forests so dense that the sun cannot penetrate them.

But, although Africa is so vast that ages must elapse before railways can be general, the old order is changing, giving place to new. Where trains are, trade will spring up. There are diamonds and gold, coal and precious minerals, tin and copper and platinum, fruits, rubber, oils, nuts, fibers, ivory, hides, furs, and a thousand other things waiting to come from Africa to the markets of the world.

A NORTHERN NIGERIAN HUNTER

The native hunter all over Africa is an adept in the art of stalking game—even human game—for when armed with a weapon having but a short range, he must get near enough to his quarry to make his shot certain. His livelihood depends upon his success. In some parts of Northern Nigeria (e. g., among the Ninzam), wooden headdresses with horns like those of the antelope are worn. Here a Nupe is wearing one resembling a hornbill.

Each big chief in Northern Nigeria has a number of trumpeters in his train who sound salutes and calls upon long brass trumpets of local manufacture, resembling our coach-horns both in appearance and in the notes produced.

NATIVE AFRICAN CUSTOMS AND CEREMONIALS

OWING to the tales of its richness in gold, the Gold Coast in West Africa has been better known than other parts, and it is only lately that the newer European possessions have been opened up and described. Even now, there are many tribes in the hinterlands between the Niger, Lake Chad, and the ocean which are practically unknown.

In West Africa the term "dress" covers everything from almost absolute nakedness to the European outfits which have been adopted. Babies usually wear nothing at all for the first year or so—with certain tribes until the age of five or six—but sometimes they will have a girdle of string, or even of beads.

As the child grows up, however, it is almost certain to have something in the way of dress and ornament. Among the Head-Hunters of Northern Nigeria a girl's lips (and sometimes her nose also) will be pierced for the reception of little disks of wood, the holes being at first small, and then gradually enlarged by the insertion of stalks of grass and sticks until they are able to hold the much-prized disks —which are often ornamented with seeds, beads, or tin.

In many tribes the children are scarified, and among the Hausas by the marks on a person's face even the place to which he belongs can be determined, and his trade inferred. In some countries the girl is dressed up in all the finery which she can provide or borrow, and parades the town to notify all eligible bachelors that she is open to offers.

Marriage may not make much difference to the dress of a man, but there will almost certainly be something in the way of a trousseau for the woman. The Head-Hunters don leaves before and behind, and a tail of palm-fiber;

the Keddara have one of string; the cannibal Gannawarri wife wears a puzzle-chain of iron rings which clanks as she walks—not at all a comfortable garment, if such it may be called. Other women in the district merely bind up their loins more securely, but in certain parts an upper cloth is added to the woman's attire, and this will be useful later on, for in it will be wrapped her baby.

A man may wear something distinctive for fighting, even if it be only a kind of war-paint, and if he manages to kill an enemy he is almost certain to have something to show afterwards in the way of a war medal.

A WEST AFRICAN BRIDE

The cloth worn by the bride, the daughter of one of the most important chiefs in the Oil Rivers Protectorate, now Southern Nigeria, is of native manufacture. Some of these cloths are very beautiful and exceedingly strong. The necklets, bracelets and hair ornaments are large pipes of real and valuable coral. The armlets are of ivory cut from elephants' tusks.

A CHIEF, JUKIN TRIBE

This chief is the ruler of Wukari, a town south of the Benue district. The position of king in the old state of Kororofa, which included the Jukins, was once one of certain death, for the reigning chief was killed at the end of the second year after his accession, the slayer being appointed to rule in his stead, provided that he could pass some simple test.

COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE

Very few natives remain single for the whole of their lives. They deride a bachelor, and say that he dreams of nothing but sweeping and cooking, having no time for anything but "woman's work." Many men are single because they cannot afford to pay for a bride—but poverty is another object of ridicule among natives. When a Head-Hunter goes to propose, he ornaments himself by painting his face and wearing a long iron chain round his neck, and takes a present of money to the father of the fair one. If his suit is accepted, he adds a hoe, a goat, a dog, and the flesh of another goat which he and the father eat. He is then supposed to be betrothed, and can claim his wife at once if she be a divorcee; but he must wait until the next wet season if she be a virgin. At the proper time a great amount of guinea-corn is collected by the youth's family,

and on the wedding-day this is taken to the house of the girl's father, where the feasting and dancing are held.

With the Hausas, the youth first asks the girl—for although Mohammedans, the women are not secluded—and if she is willing he gets his best friend to approach his father or uncle, who then sounds the girl's father or uncle. In some parts an old woman may act as an intermediary. If all are willing, a part of the dower is paid, and on the fourth day before the wedding, the bride-to-be is seized by her female relatives and bridesmaids, who stain her hands and feet with henna, the girl resisting—or pretending to do so. She is kept in the stain for four days, and is then taken to her husband's house at night. He, however, is not there; he has to live with the best man for some days—varying from two to seven. At the end of the time, the best man brings him to his house, and, having given presents to the bridesmaids still with her and thus bribed them to go away, the best man tries to make the bride speak. She will not do so, and he also retires, leaving her and her husband alone. The name of the first husband is never spoken by a Hausa wife; she calls him owner of the house or something similar, for the real name is a vulnerable point of attack if used by an evilly-disposed wife.

In Liberia the aboriginal girl must pass through a bush school much resembling that of the *Bunda* in Sierra Leone, and to a less extent the Fatting House of Southern Nigeria; and when she is ready for marriage, her prospective husband is advised. He has probably bespoken her in early youth, and so has saved up his presents in anticipation of the great day, and he now brings the bride-price (which is about equal to one cow, two slaves, and a number of kola-nuts), or perhaps only a part, the rest being paid later in installments, on proof of the satisfactory quality of the goods. The bride's family has already been propitiated by guns for the brothers, and cloths for the sisters, and household utensils or cloths for the mother. The bride is rubbed all over with a pomade made of animal fat and palm-oil, and having been decked in special ornaments supposed to possess some magic properties, she is taken to the bridegroom's house, where a feast is being held.

WOMAN OF THE GERKUA TRIBE

The baby is carried in a bag made of string or of a goat-skin, and thus burdened the mother goes out to the farm. Notice the native hoe.

Religion and Magic

Owing to the rapid spread of Mohammedanism, many old beliefs

AFRICAN JUJU IMAGES, WITH ATTENDANTS

The term Juju used in Southern Nigeria is probably derived from a local word "egugu," meaning a sacred emblem. Jujus vary in importance in different towns, but to the dominant one is always ascribed protection against witchcraft. Priests dress up to represent the Jujus at certain times, and there is great rivalry between the different towns as to which can produce the most gorgeous robes for the images and members, so the financial state of a place may be gauged by these.

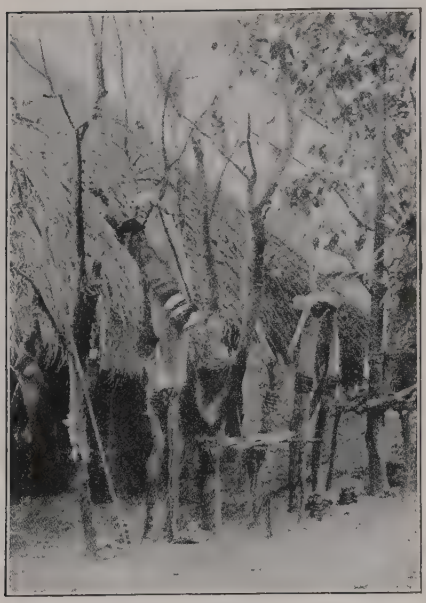
and customs are dying out, but West Africa is still immensely rich in examples of sorcery and magic, and Islam has merely substituted one kind of superstition for another. Even to the partly converted Hausa, the world is peopled with spirits, or *bori*, most of which are evilly disposed, or, at any rate, will work evil upon the slightest provocation, and care must be taken to propitiate them, or at least to avoid attracting their attention. Many of these *bori* are disease spirits, possibly introduced by Arabs, such as *Yerima* (fever) and the *Yayan Zanzanna* (who give smallpox and other complaints); many are old pagan deities, whose worship is still retained, the chief of the latter being *Magirro* and *Uwar Gwona* (corn deities), *Mai-Ja-Chikki* (a snake), and *Kuri* and his wife *Uwar Dowa*, the rulers of the forest. In Nigeria the rites—in which people imagine themselves possessed by these and other spirits—have been forbidden by the government, but they still flourish further to the north, and even along the Benue natives of other tribes have learned them.

The Head-Hunters believe in a supreme God, who seems to be confused with the universe, and regard him as a beneficent being who helps them against the ghosts of their dead ancestors, who are always causing trouble to the members of the family still upon earth.

The principal cults of the religion of the Ekoi are that of ancestors and that of nature forces. There are but two actual deities: *Obassi Osaw* (he of the sky), and *Obassi Nsi* (he of the earth); but the whole bush is now peopled with countless hordes of supernatural beings, horrible half-human shapes though indications have been found of a form of worship which links the belief of the present-day Ekoi with that of the ancient Phœnician, the Egyptian, the Roman, and the Greek.

In Dahomey serpent worship is the chief religion, the python being the emblem of bliss and prosperity. There are various sects of priests, and a child who has been touched by one of these reptiles must be initiated into a sect. The religion is almost idolatry, for clay images are made of some of the spirits, and in Wida there can or could be seen many a cone of baked clay, the apex saturated with palm-oil, palm-wine, and other offerings; the cone representing *Azoon*, the protector of houses.

The *Ikenga* are images purchased in the market, which are thrown away some days after the owner's death. Last come the *Alose*, or demigods, comprising the year, *Aro*, the week, various trees and rivers, and *Agu*, the tutelary deity of the medicine-men, a mischievous sprite who will spoil the crops and bring unlimited misfortune upon anyone upon whom he chooses to play his pranks. At the end of the year women carry old pots, clothes, baskets, etc., to the place consecrated to *Aro* and throw them away, believing that they are thus ridding themselves of pain and sickness for the coming year. Sacrifices to *Agu* are made outside the house wall. Ancestors, also, are worshiped for those who have no children become evil spirits. At Awka fowls are sacrificed to the ancestors of each sept or clan, each child taking a fowl to the head of the family, who sacrifices them, sprinkling some of the blood upon oglisi sticks which have been set up, the remainder being put into a wooden vessel and kept by the wife of the head. Yams and oil-beans are prepared also, the small boys eating the offerings. All the fowls are then put in a heap, and each man takes his own and cooks it at home, but at sunrise they are taken back to the head-man,



A MUNCHI HUNTING JUJU

Before the hunt it is necessary for the hunters to prepare themselves and their weapons, and certain ceremonies are performed so as to enlist the services of the spirits. Observe the quivers hung up on a tree in order that the arrows may be helped in their flight by the desired supernatural agencies.

A MEDICINE MAN OF MAIDUGURI

The medicine man has to wear numerous charms not only to make certain that he possesses magical power but also to advertise the fact that he depends upon them, some of which he sells at a high price. His clothes are almost concealed by the number of his amulets while a leopard skin does duty for a hat.

whose wife brings the blood, and each man dips the head of his fowl in this and again sprinkles the oglisi. The head, neck, and gizzard are given to the head-man.

HOUSEHOLD SHRINES AND WORSHIP

With the Edo, there is no family which has not its household shrine and household worship both of the spirits, or *ebo*, and of ancestors. Over all is the supreme *Osa*, whose emblem —a pole with a white cloth or a pot— is seen everywhere. He is the creator of the world. Sacrifices are offered to the various gods, and they are regarded as "payments for work," and the alligator pepper is used as a stimulant to ensure the speedy action of the recipient.

Bobowissi is the chief god of the southern tribes of the Gold Coast, and was, until recently, worshiped universally by the tribes on the littoral as far as Accra. He is said to have appointed all the local deities, the spirits of the woods, rivers, hills, valleys and the sea, and to be the lord of storms, who, when offended, would kill by lightning, or by breaking down with rain the mud houses of the occupants. *Tando* specially protects the Ashanti, keeping them informed of the secret machinations of their enemies. Sometimes in the old days he would assume the form of a male child, and, having caused himself to be taken prisoner by the enemies, and carried to their country, he would then devastate it with pestilence.

After the principal deities come many of less importance, the chief of which are *Srahmantin* and *Sasabonsum*. The former is a white female of enormous size, who lives in or among the silk-cotton trees, and crushes passers-by. *Sasabonsum* is a red monster who lives in the depths of the forest underground, where the earth is red,

or in silk-cotton trees. He is the most cruel and malevolent of all the gods, capturing and devouring solitary wayfarers wherever they are found—their blood accounting for the red earth. He throws the trees down to crush passers-by, and heaves up the earth so as to make the houses fall in. In the old days, human sacrifices were always made after an earthquake to propitiate him, and when houses were rebuilt blood was sometimes used to color the lower parts of the walls and the foundations.

The term "fetishism," so long connected with the Gold Coast and its hinterland, is now being discontinued; it was simply a term to describe an idea that a spirit had taken up its abode in some natural feature of the landscape, a mountain or stream, for instance, or in some object specially appointed for its reception, such as a figure, or a dish of "medicine." The beliefs, however, have not been repudiated, and the former are regarded as tribal deities, while the latter are usually the guardians of families or even of individuals.

So long as they are faithful to their followers there is no lack of attention paid to them; but if they prove unfaithful or incapable they are at once discarded in favor of better spirits, which are kindly indicated by the priests—for a fee.

The Bambaras believe in a supreme god, Allah, creator and ruler of all, one who rewards or punishes. His name is invoked when blessing a newly-married couple, or when consoling mourners or pacifying sufferers.

After Allah come the angels, and then the *Gnena* or jinns, who live, rejoice, and suffer exactly as do human beings. They are subject to Allah, and, like the Hausa *bori*, can do nothing if he sees fit to prevent them, but otherwise they are all-powerful in certain functions, and the Bambaras make supplications to them directly—for they do more good than evil—though in a confused way they also pray through them to Allah. They are supposed to be like Europeans—as is *Dodo* with the Hausas—and whereas white fowls are offered as sacrifices to the jinns, they are also given as presents to the Europeans. The *Gna* or *Boli* are very evil spirits, in open conflict with Allah, who has condemned them to the flames. They are very black and hideous, and have horns.

Wizards and witches punished

The detection and punishment of wizards and witches is often left to certain castes of medicine-men; indeed, they are the only persons who can "smell out" these evil doers. Thus the Kwi-iru of the Grebo, the secret society of "children of departed spirits," is composed of all people except children. The head or father is known only to the members, and when he appears in public is too well masked to be identified.

The avowed object of the society is the punishment of wizards and witches, so the members usually operate at night and capture any one they find walking about, and put him to the ordeal next morning.

Towards the end of August a festival is held for the general remembrance of the dead, and from early morning the people wail for those who have died during the past two years. Then each family goes to its own graves and makes offerings of fowls, eggs, rum and palm-wine, flattering the deceased, and calling upon them for protection.

After this, there is feasting for seven days, and on the ninth morning the common utensils used during the festival are thrown away, new ones being substituted.

A PROTECTION AGAINST DISEASE

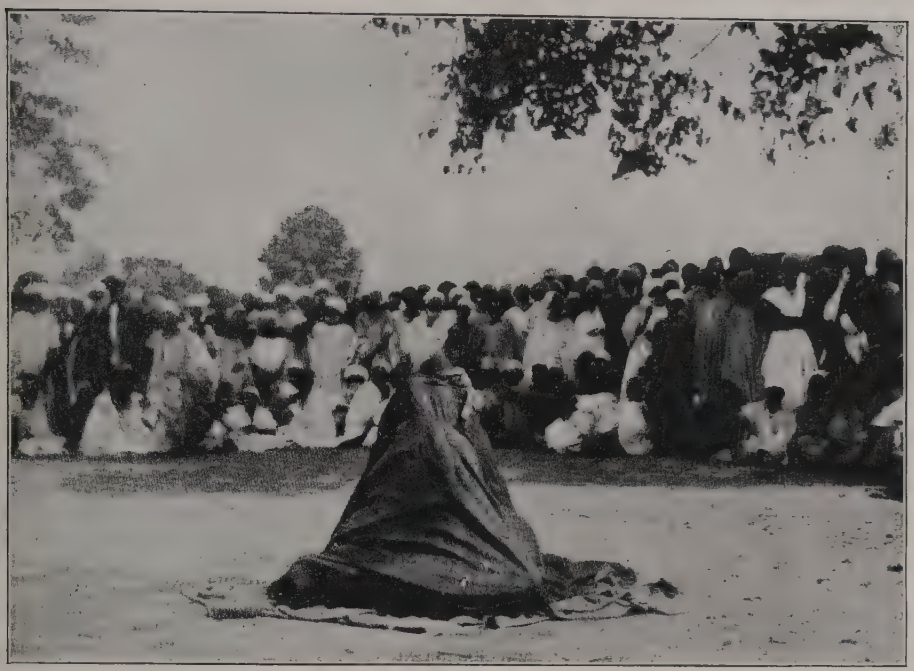
The Ekoi who live in the Oban district of Southern Nigeria, set up in towns every seven years, figures to represent human beings in order that they may attract the diseases and allow the people of the villages to escape.

OFFERINGS TO THE GHOSTS, NORTH EKONG

At the entrace to all Ekoi towns offerings are hung on either side of the pathway, or are buried in the path itself, so as to propitiate the ghosts and persuade them not to enter the town.

THE LEOPARD SECRET SOCIETY

A Leopard secret society, the members of which dress themselves in the skins of animals—principally that of the leopard—and commit depredations at night similar to those of the denizens of the bush, is found among almost every tribe in Southern Nigeria.



A PUPPET SHOW, BIDA

A man concealed under the gown manipulates puppets on his hands in the same way as a Punch and Judy showman. He also produces the real Punch squeak, and Nupe being an intoned language, the audience roar at his jokes conveyed by the modulated squeak alone.

A GOLDEN STOOL FOR THE KING

Formerly, when the King of Ashanti was placed upon the Golden Stool, a number of youths and maidens were selected to be in constant attendance upon him and to guard him from harm; the women preparing and tasting every dish previous to its being placed before him, the men forming his body-guard. All known as the "King's souls," enjoyed special privileges during his life, but at his death they were put to death and buried with him, in order both to serve him in the next world, and to show that the deceased had really been a great king. It is said that these "souls" did not try to avoid their fate, believing that they

DIFALO DANCERS

The Difalo bury their dead temporarily in a cave, removing the bodies later and burying the remains afresh, with the exception of certain bones which are piled up into a mound within a sacred enclosure. At all the rites special clothing is worn, the above picture showing the head-dresses of some of the dancers.

would enjoy a similar status in the next world to that which they had held during life. On each anniversary of the king's death, fresh attendants were despatched to join him to show that he had not been forgotten, and to give further proof of his greatness to the inhabitants of the world which he was then honoring with his presence.

Among the Yeskuwa, when a new chief has been elected, he must provide a feast of guinea-corn beer. He is usually given some three months in which to collect the supply, but even then the feast probably renders him bankrupt until such time as he has seized sufficient of the property of his subjects to repay the loans. Until the feast has been given, he is not considered as having been installed but during the interval he is taboo, for he must not see or speak to a stranger.

One of the Ibo chiefs, the King of Aguku, is the spiritual potentate over a large extent of the country, and is regarded with great awe by the populace. He is dressed in a long blue gown, and on his head is a tall cowhide cap surrounded by eagles' feathers. He rarely leaves his own town after his first year of kingship; but when he does so, he is always accompanied by a servant who carries a small bell.

If the chief meets anyone upon the road whom he wishes to salute, he takes the bell and strikes two notes upon it. In his own house, or in the town of Aguku, a large single bell is used, and when the king strikes this, all the people present clap their hands.

When he is dying a man from a certain district touches his face with a sacred object, *ofo*, which is then put away in the sleeping-mat of the departing king, and is kept there until the successor (not necessarily a relative) sends to the dead man's son for permission to remove it.

In this removal of the *ofo* lie the essential features of the coronation.

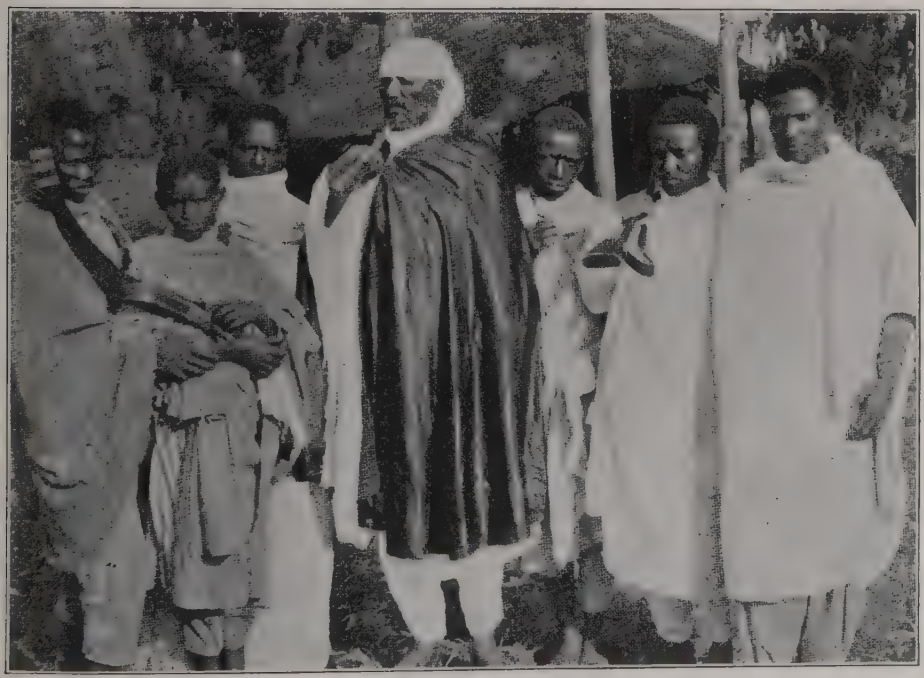
ABYSSINIA—ITS CUSTOMS AND SUPERSTITIONS

Abyssinia was an ancient kingdom of established repute in the days of Homer, who bears record to the hospitality of the "blameless Ethiop," extended to the very gods of high Olympus. Later it was the home of Prester John, whose legendary personality stamped itself so deeply on the medieval imagination. Still later it was the cradle of Christianity in the heart of Africa from the fourth century onwards. Today Abyssinia presents the somewhat melancholy spectacle of a dying culture.

The present population of Abyssinia is mixed. Egyptian, Greek, Jew, Portuguese, Indian, Arab and Negro intermingle, and in the chaos of their conflicting interests and beliefs the old culture dies fast. In the state religion, Christianity, and in Abyssinian Mohammedanism, there are many traces of pagan superstitions and practices to which some of the inhabitants are wholly given up. The worship of the Virgin Mary is so widely extended and forms such a large part of the orthodox religion, that it seems exceedingly probable that it may be derived from the cult of some pagan goddess whose attributes and very existence have been forgotten in this later development of her rites. All Abyssinians, whether Christian, Mohammedan or Pagan, believe in evil spirits of various forms and shapes, endowed with different powers of malignity. Some haunt dark corners by the wayside,

AN ABYSSINIAN CHURCH

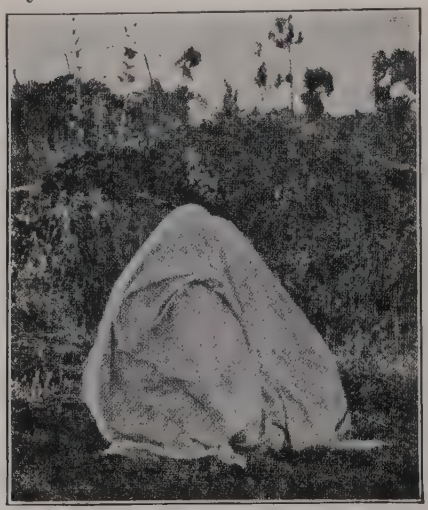
Christening in the case of either sex is, curiously enough, celebrated in Abyssinia by the initiation ceremony customary among Mohammedans. The mother goes alone with the child to the priest, who, after the fee has been paid, performs the operation outside the church but within the fence that surrounds it.



ABYSSINIAN DRESS

A long white shirt reaching down over the trousers is usually worn, and over it a shawl which is wrapped in deep folds and brought over the shoulders in a picturesque manner.

others lurk in cemeteries; some possess their victims with madness, others inflict diseases upon them; one particularly baneful, known as Lilith, seeks to destroy children in infancy. Against these supernatural agents many devices and charms are employed.



AVOIDING THE EVIL EYE

Abyssinians often cover themselves up in their garments while taking a meal by the wayside in order to avoid travelers casting "the evil eye" upon them.

The clothing habitually worn by the Abyssinians is very simple, consisting of a long white shirt, reaching down over the trousers. Over the shoulders is thrown the *shama* (shawl), which hangs in deep folds. The general effect is strikingly picturesque. The native is highly intelligent, and exercises much natural wit in driving a bargain; but he is lazy, and owes many illnesses, even blindness and leprosy, to dirt.

INFERIOR POSITION OF WOMEN

The women are industrious, rising early, and completing most of the housework before the appearance of their husbands; they do a certain amount of work in the fields as well. They occupy an inferior position and have few enjoyments. Their condition does not, however, deprive them of the pleasures of vanity, and they may be said to be even vainer than the Persians. To enhance their natural charms they dye their finger and toe nails red, and show their teeth to greater advantage by painting their gums black. The eyebrows are sharply defined by art and the breast, neck and back are not infrequently embellished by elaborate tattoo designs. Yet their appeal is primarily made to the sense of smell and not to that of sight. Scents are highly valued and lavishly used, so that to a European the effect produced is exactly opposite to that desired.

Girls are married at the age of fourteen and fifteen, being sold by their parents, who receive money or cattle in return.

Though the women occasionally allow themselves some license before marriage, they prove faithful wives. The marriage ceremony provides one of many welcome opportunities for feasting and drinking; and any quarrels arising from these carousals are invariably settled outside the courts of justice. In Abyssinia custom decrees that a man shall marry his brother's widow.

If a man commits murder, he is handed over to the relatives of the dead, who can either demand his execution or a compensation of money or cattle. If the dead man has no relatives, the priest has sole right to pass judgment and exact such fines as he shall think fit. Or a passer-by, on being adjured "By Menelek," may be called in and compelled to settle a dispute; no easy matter where plaintiff and defendant endeavor to surpass each other in the lies they tell.

Among the many superstitions held by the Abyssinians the following may serve as examples. To kill a hyena is to destroy your good luck, it being

SOMALI BOYS CARRYING MILK IN SKIN BAGS.

Somalis, like all good Mohammedans, always keep the person well covered—their fashions never change. The men either wear a white or colored loincloth with a half tobe covering the shoulders, or the full tobe alone. The conventional dress is the full tobe, which consists of a sheet of cotton cloth, seven or eight cubits in length, according to the fancy of the wearer, and of double width stitched together. The garment is very similar to the Roman toga.

believed that these beasts devour the dead, whose souls continue to live on in the animal's body.

Blacksmiths, it is believed, though this superstition is now dying fast, disappear at night up the chimney and are turned into hyenas. They are held to be in league with the devil, and no better-class Abyssinian would allow his daughter to marry a blacksmith.

Illness is often attributed to the effect of the evil eye, against which children are guarded by being always covered with cotton cloth. The cure for ills caused by the evil eye is as follows: the flesh and skin of a hyena are packed into a small vessel and glowing coals are placed on the top. The nose and mouth of the invalid are then fumigated with the concoction, while he howls like a hyena and says "So-and-So cast the evil eye on me."

The white eagle is believed to bring great misfortune and is always shot if possible. The bird's liver is cut out and applied by rubbing to a cow's udder. A portion is then placed in an amulet and the remainder distributed among the fodder. In this way an ample milk supply is insured. The head of the white raven hung round a beast's neck is a protection against the evil eye.

Detecting a thief

A peculiar method is practiced for detecting a thief. A boy is reduced to a trance-like condition by a secretly-prepared drug, which he swallows in milk; he is then supplied with another preparation, which he sucks in a pipe; after which he is led to the place where the theft was committed, to detect the thief.

The evil eye plays an important part among the native superstitions. The Abyssinian dislikes to be watched while eating, and people may often be seen by the roadside covering their heads with a *shama* while taking their meal.

Doctors are unknown except in the European quarters, the people being treated by the priests, who provide their patients with amulets and decoctions of herbs.

The priests who profess the power of casting out devils, proceed by asking the devil the cause of the sickness, at the same time prescribing a remedy, in return for which a gift is demanded.

Many cripples and invalids go on pilgrimage to holy places like Sugala and Debra Libanos, where are hot springs to which healing powers are ascribed.

On the roof of an Abyssinian church a cross of metal may be seen, to the four points of which are often affixed the eggs of an ostrich. An old priest gave the following explanation: "The ostrich has to sit on its egg continuously, for the egg, if left, becomes rotten. This should be an example to people to attend assiduously to their religious duties, lest they too come to rot."

The religious rites have become very confused owing to Jewish and Mohammedan influence, traces of which are to be found in the laws. For instance, the Abyssinian, like the Jew, may not eat swine's flesh, nor may game be eaten unless killed by hand. Whenever they shot a gazelle or guinea-fowl its throat was promptly cut in belief that death only supervened on the performance of this act.

They also celebrate important holidays at Easter, Christmas and the New Year (in September), and shortly after the New Year, the Mascal, in commemoration of the discovery of the Cross.

Cormorants are splendid catchers of fish, and are frequently employed by fishermen in the east and center of China. The birds are prevented from swallowing the fish by an ingenious contrivance fastened round their necks.

THE CHINESE REPUBLIC

THE OLDEST LIVING NATION IN THE WORLD

THE dominions which owe fealty to the Republic of China cover one quarter of Asia, from the Pamirs to the Pacific, and from Siberia to India. The mysterious and wonderful mother country, China proper, lies between its great dependent states of Manchuria, Mongolia, and Turkestan, and the vast Pacific Ocean. In size China proper is about half the size of the United States, and its face is crossed by the outlying eastward ranges of mountains running from the great central heights, and by the immense rivers fed by the snows of Thibet, and joined by a network of streams on their long journey to the ocean.

It is estimated that over 300,000,000 people live in China, in its great cities and fertile plains, and on the banks of its waterways.

We always think of China as "topsy-turvy" land and indeed many of its customs seem to be the very opposite of ours in this Western Hemisphere. We reckon from the North—they from the South. Their ladies ride in wheelbarrows while their cattle are carried in carriages. They put their family names first, and given names second. For example, Theodore Roosevelt would be Roosevelt Theodore in China. They always mount horse on the right side and at dinner the left side of the host is the honored one, while they show respect by keeping on their hats. Their boats chiefly are drawn by men, while they attach sails to their carriages. Many of their customs and habits appear to us as ludicrous and grotesque.

Among the treasures found in many homes of America are curiosities brought by travelers and relations from this wonderland of the Far East, such as delicate embroideries in shining silks of gorgeous colors, dainty carvings in ivory, and exquisite little bits of fine porcelain or china. And as we have looked closely at the regular stitches in the beautiful fabric we have seen that there is no untidy "wrong side" in Chinese work. We have wondered at the seemingly impossible puzzle of the ivory balls

carved one inside the other, or at the unusual patterns on the thin little cups, and we have tried to picture to ourselves the far country whence the treasures came, and the patient and skilled workers who made them. Perhaps all that we have succeeded in calling before our minds are the pigtails of the Chinese men, and the tiny feet of Chinese women, upon a misty background of an unknown land of flowers, with gracefully curved buildings and willow-pattern plate landscapes.

If we have gone to our map of China for help, very possibly we have been dismayed and discouraged by the great number of difficult names upon it, and queer ones indeed they seem to us, in a language so absolutely different from our own. So perhaps it will help us in our quest of a closer view of China and its people to learn a few words of Chinese first, and then, at any rate, we shall understand what some of the names mean, which will give us a much better chance of remembering them,difficult as they are.

In this veritable Land of Mighty Streams, ho, kiang, and kong, all mean river; chan, or shan, and ling, stand for the mountains between which the rivers run, or through which, in some parts, they force a way between mighty gorges; pe, nan, tong, or tung, and si, indicate the points of the compass, north, south, east, and west; hoang, or hwang, is yellow, the imperial color of China; pei, is white; fu, or foo, and king, mean town or court; hai, the sea; chian, heaven, and so on.

Knowing a few words like these, we can easily find the mountains of the east, north, and south: Shan-tung, and the Pe-ling and Nan-ling ranges. The two last shut in the basin of China's greatest and most important river, the Yang-tse-kiang. Over 3000 miles lie between its sources in the heights of Tibet and its mouth in the Pacific Ocean. It makes a magnificent waterway into the heart of the country, wide and deep enough for steamers to ply for a thousand miles through the rich plains of Central China, which the river itself has done much to form, by bringing down fertile mud, as the Nile does along its banks in Egypt.

THE RIVER OF CHINA'S SORROW AND THE TERROR OF ITS FLOODS

In its upper courses, separated from the lower by grand gorges which remind us of the Iron Gate on the Danube, it passes through a rich district of red earth—as large as England and very thickly peopled. There are lakes in the basin of the Yang-tse-kiang which act as reservoirs in the time of heavy rains, so that its floods are not so disastrous as those on the Hwang-ho, or Yellow River, which drains through Northern China. "China's Sorrow" is one of the names of the latter river, so dreadful are the floods when it bursts its banks and submerges the surrounding country and towns. It is not navigable for long distances, like the Yang-tse-kiang, but on its banks, and in caves in its cliffs, live many of China's millions.

This famous Yellow River and also the Yellow Sea into which it empties get their color from a peculiar kind of earth called "loess" through which the river passes far inland. This loess is really dust which was blown into large dunes thousands of years ago when the ice which had covered China melted and left the bare soil a prey to the winds.

So here we have a yellow land with a yellow river, cutting its way through the soft soil, making deep cliffs on each side, and carrying its thick, yellow, sandy waters onwards, until they pour by ever-changing mouths

into a yellow sea. One of the titles of the great Emperor of China was "Lord of the Yellow Land."

THE WONDERFUL YELLOW SOIL THAT GROWS SEVERAL CROPS A YEAR

The yellow basin of North China is even more fertile than the red basin of Central China, several valuable crops being raised in a year on this "loess" soil.

The Si-kiang, or West River, drains Southern China, rising in the eastern spurs of the Tibetan heights, and making its way through tropical forests, past mountains with treasures of every sort of mineral, and fields with crops that require a hot and moist climate. It is from Southern China principally that so many Chinese emigrate to find work in different parts of the coast of the wide Pacific.

We have often imagined the hum that rises from busy districts and towns in other countries, but from China—from that vast hive of human industry between the solemn, silent central mountains and the deep, wide sea—it seems as if there must be one continuous and mighty buzz from the whole country, so close are the great cities, so many are the millions of people living and working on the fertile plains.

And this buzz of multitudes is no new thing, as it is in our own country, where great industrial centers are scarcely a century old; neither is it caused, as it is with us, by the whirl and thump of machinery and the noise of the iron horse on his journeys to every corner of the land. Railways and machinery are, comparatively speaking, only just starting in China, the oldest living nation in the world.

THE LAND OF ETERNAL SAMENESS WHERE CUSTOMS NEVER CHANGE

For thousands of years her people have been steadily working, growing in numbers and changing rulers, suffering the horrors of war and enjoying the blessings of peace, but always busy in the same old ways, making the same things, cultivating the ground on the same methods for centuries, learning the same lessons in the same language, and competing in the same examinations to fill the same government posts.

It is difficult for us who are all for progress and new ideas, and dislike standing still, to understand this steady keeping to old ways. Two thousand years ago most of our ancestors were still in the wilds of Europe—very rough persons, who would find us, their descendants, very much changed in language, manners, and dress from themselves.

Now, the written history of China goes back for 4000 years, more than twice as long as ours, so that when Europe was just beginning to make for civilized ways and thoughts, the Chinese nation was as old as we are now. But she lost the advantage of her start of 2000 years by standing still, going to sleep, and keeping to herself for centuries while the young Western nations were forging ahead, developing governments and education and inventions.

THE LONG SLEEP OF THE CHINESE PEOPLE AND THEIR HATRED OF NEW IDEAS

There are many reasons that account for the long sleep. We will only speak of two that will help us to understand the history of this country, so unlike our own. One is that the Chinese have always greatly revered their parents and ancestors, going so far as to make it a first duty to carry on the work of life in exactly the same way that their forefathers had handed down.

Another reason is that, with few exceptions, the Chinese have stayed at home within the limits of their own

NATIVE INDUSTRIES OF THE CHINESE

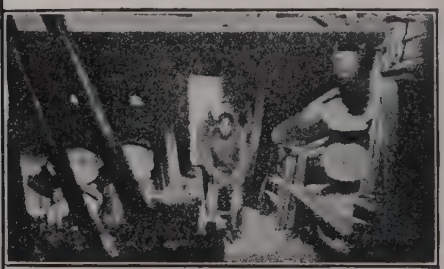
Agricultural implements in China are primitive, the rude wooden plow being a case in point.

In the province of Kwang Tung irrigation is often effected by an arrangement of bucket and ropes.

Besides the bucket method of irrigation, a kind of wheel is used to raise the water to the ditches.

When boring a hole with his bow-drill, the Chinese carpenter holds the wood with his foot.

Chinese blacksmith shop. The man at the left is scraping a piece of iron.



The coffin maker's establishment is worth a visit, if only to see the curious shapes of the caskets.

Not far from the walled city of Yeung Kong is this factory for the production of incense.

Chinese bricklayers at work. The bricks used are several inches longer than those in America.

country. Then, as they also seldom encouraged foreigners to visit them—indeed, they rigidly kept them out, as a rule—no new ideas of progress and reform, no new knowledge of outside discoveries and inventions, could penetrate the wall of reserve that shut in their heavenly, or celestial, kingdom, so superior, as they believed, to the rest of the earth. And, as time went on, they hated anything new or foreign more and more. But that is changing now.

Some say that ages ago the ancestors of the Chinese came from the Tarim basin and settled on the yellow loess-beds, where it was so easy to grow food.

Anyway, here they lived, advancing in civilization for long, long years, before they spread across the forest-covered mountain ranges which separate the basin of the Yellow River from that of the Yang-tse-kiang. Here too, the tribes flourished and grew, and in time united under one ruler; the government became more settled and all sorts of arts developed, such as the cultivating of silkworms and the weaving of silk. This has ever been one of China's greatest and most profitable industries.

CONFUCIUS, THE GREAT TEACHER WHOSE WORDS ARE LAW TO MILLIONS OF MEN

About twenty-six centuries ago a great teacher and leader arose, named Confucius, who, during his wandering and hard life, tried to find out how best a man could do his duty to his neighbor, and how best he could learn to govern himself. His teachings have been law to countless millions of his fellow-countrymen, his temples are found all over China, and his books have been the foundation of all learning through the centuries—for Confucius collected and set in order the history of the nation, and inspired a great many books in which his teaching is set forth.

His teachings constitute a sort of religion which has some fine points. Its greatest defect however has been that it has made the Chinese always look backward for perfection instead of forward. It taught the Chinese to honor and revere their ancestors, even to the point of never trying to advance or to improve on the old methods of doing things. It taught them to copy perfectly past achievements, but never to think out anything new for themselves.

The Chinese are the most laboriously learned people in the world but they have not advanced a bit or invented anything for three thousand years when even at that time they had gunpowder, the mariner's compass, and the art of printing.

Confucius is to blame for this just as much as he is to be honored for teaching them morality.

A few hundred years after his death, a prince of China reigned who ordered a great burning of the books of Confucius, and cruelly treated those who tried to keep them. One punishment was to send them to labor on a great wall that he was building, right across the north of China, to keep out the Mongolian horsemen, who were forever descending on his country. Thirty feet high, fifteen feet wide at the top, faced with granite, with many towers of defence, this wonderful wall runs over hill and valley, across sand and river, up the face of the rocks, for 1500 miles along the north border line of China. This wall still divides China from Mongolia; but it did not keep the Mongols out, any more than the Roman wall across Britain kept out the Picts and Scots.

Some further account of Confucius will be found under the caption "Some Founders of Religions" in these books.

THE GREAT SILENT DESERT WHERE CHINA'S GREAT WALL LIES BURIED

The last explorer to return from Central Asia is Dr. Stein, and the discoveries he made there are of importance and interest in connection with this great wall.

For miles and miles, as far as the eye can see in the basin of the Tarim River, there stretches sand, nothing but dry, parched sand, that has fought and conquered mankind, overwhelming towns and villages, and sweeping away a flourishing civilization. Of life there is practically no trace. Men have fled before those advancing grains of sand, that they were powerless to check; animals have died. Only one or two plants are able to exist in those desolate wastes. It is a land of sand—and silence.

In these awful wastes, beneath the numerous sand-dunes, Dr. Stein made some interesting discoveries. He found that the Great Wall of China, which hitherto was thought to end at the foot of the Nan-Shan Mountains, does not end there at all. Far away to the west in the Tunghwan Desert he found the remains of a great wall, with watch-towers at intervals of two or three miles, that practically joins the wall at the foot of the Nan-Shan Mountains.

This, he believes, is the true Great Wall of China, and the wall which we have always looked upon as the great wall is, apparently, much more modern.

THE HISTORY OF A RACE THAT IS BURIED UNDER THE SAND OF CENTURIES

There, from those silent and deserted houses and watch-towers, Dr. Stein has excavated that terrible sand, little by little, and his labor has been well repaid. Wooden slabs, with carefully wrought symbols and clay seals, private letters, official documents, frail materials of cotton and silk, and ancient paper, have all been recovered from the sand under which they have lain for many centuries, and these documents, when translated, may give us a history of the long-vanished race which once occupied the land that is now a great sandy waste, where life is insupportable.

We can imagine with what fears these ancient people saw the sand creeping nearer and nearer; how they battled with it valiantly, and tried to keep it from their homes; and how, at length, the sand slowly crept up to the houses and cottages, and into the rooms, driving the inhabitants forth, and gradually covering the entire place in a thick layer. But although the sand has destroyed, it has also preserved, and the relics which have been found will throw much light upon those ancient and deeply interesting times. More than a hundred years before the birth of Christ regular trade was opened up with Central Asia by China, and caravans began to wind along the routes from one oasis to another across the deserts, through the passes of Mongolia and Turkestan, carrying goods for trade by the infinite labor of men and dumb animals.

THE GOLDEN AGE OF CHINA WHEN TEMPLES WERE BUILT AND BOOKS WERE PRINTED

Later, the country suffered from many disturbances and divisions, and the struggles among several small rulers to be first and foremost. It was during these centuries, about the time when the Angles and Saxons were seeking their new homes across the North Sea, that the Buddhist religion took hold in China, though it had been introduced from India some centuries before. The story is told that about the time of the birth of Christ the Emperor of China had a dream telling him that a prophet was born in the west. He then sent a great embassy

overland to find this prophet and bring back his religion to China. After much traveling his ambassadors arrived in India where they found Buddhism. Thinking this religion to be the one of which they were sent in search they returned taking back with them this Indian teaching, introducing it into China about 35 years after the birth of Christ. Temples were built all over the country, to house the thousands of images that were brought by the priests and monks.

The three centuries after this are considered by the Chinese as one of the most glorious periods in their long history. Books and authors, schools and colleges, examinations and degrees, occupied a great place in public life. About the time when King Alfred was setting scholars laboriously to work with their pens and paint-brushes to copy manuscripts, Chinese records mention the printing of books by wooden blocks. About this time, too, an immense encyclopædia was written. The fame of this learning and of the gorgeous palaces and riches of China was spread to Europe, chiefly by Arab traders, and ever since the romance and mystery of China has attracted the imagination and longing of the West.

How the door was opened for Europe to get its first peep of China

But it was not till the thirteenth century that the Venetian, the most famous traveler the world has ever known, Marco Polo opened the door for Europe to get a passing view of the wonders of the dim and mysterious land of the Far East.

Early in that century the Mongols had gradually been getting more and more power on the borders of Central Asia and in the north of China. When the great leader Jenghiz Khan, the "Greatest of the Great," flashed over Western Asia and ruled over a country stretching from the China Sea to Russia, some of the barriers that had hitherto prevented entry into China were swept away. The huge empire was divided at his death among his sons, and a good deal of intercourse followed between China and Persia, Tibet and Mongolia.

The great Mongol emperor who made Peking his capital

It was the grandson of Jenghiz Kahn, Kublai Khan, who welcomed Marco Polo so kindly to China, and sent him on so many missions to the wild provinces on the borders of Tibet and other distant parts of the country. Deeply interesting is the account of Kublai's reign by Marco Polo, as well as the writings of other travelers who seized the opportunity of exploring the heights of the Pamirs and the Tarim basin; and some even crossed the Hwang-ho into China itself.

Kublai added Southern China to his dominions, and made his new capital at Peking, the Court of the North. This great soldier proved equally great as a ruler, for he encouraged education and helped China in many ways.

His grandson, Timur, or Tamerlane, was the last of these great Mongol rulers. He gave an order that Confucius should be held in great respect. After his death, rebellions and murders of emperors, great misgovernment, and other troubles brought the rule of the Mongols to an end. In the fifteenth century the Chinese drove them across the Great Wall to the Altai Mountains, and Mongolia became a province under the Chinese Ming family or dynasty, of emperors, which lasted nearly 300 years. There were troubles at home and abroad during this time, difficulties with the Mongols and the Japanese, and most important of all, the door which hid the Celestials from

the Western "barbarians" began to open just a little. The Portuguese and Spaniards appeared in China in the sixteenth century.

A WONDERFUL CHINESE ENCYCLOPEDIA IN THOUSANDS OF VOLUMES

Very beautiful procelain was made during the Ming dynasty, and another large encyclopædia was brought out, which occupied many editors and assistants for several years. It is said that this is the largest encyclopædia in the world. It runs to many thousands of volumes, and a copy is now to be seen in the National Museum at Washington. The Portuguese traders made but little impression on China, settling at Macao, near Hong Kong, but the Jesuit missionaries managed to make their way inland in China to preach the Christian religion.

There are many splendid remains of the great Ming dynasty in China, especially near Peking. Among them is a long avenue of large stone animals in various postures, leading to the wonderful tombs of the emperors. There are also many magnificent memorial archways.

As the Ming dynasty was nearing its end, the Manchus, who were kinsmen of the Mongols, settled in Manchuria, about the River Amur, and made increasingly successful attacks on the empire till, in 1616, the Manchu line of rulers found themselves firmly seated on the throne, beyond the great wall that was built centuries before to keep out invaders. China was ruled by emperors of the Manchu dynasty until 1912, when they were forced to withdraw and a republic was established.

THE GREAT STRUGGLE OF THE NATIONS OF EUROPE TO SET FOOT IN CHINA

The last seventy years have seen a grim and never-ending game of the "King of the Castle" going on between China and the Western Powers that are so anxious to gain footholds in her rich and ancient country. The chief object for which these footholds were desired was to force the Christian religion and Western ideas upon a country which detested them, and to open up trade with people who had so much to sell, and whose great numbers mean great buying power.

Little by little China has been forced to give way, and she has had to admit, one by one, her assailants into some part of the enchanted "Castle." Portuguese, Dutch, Germans, Russians, and British for years carried on the struggle, and after wars and sieges and stormings, and endless discussion of a more peaceful nature, the various foreign nations at last have gained the right of entry into the land so long closed to them.

It was in 1842 that, by the Treaty of Nanking, certain treaty ports were opened to foreign trading ships, and as time went on more and more concessions had to be given to the foreigners; concessions and money were often exacted as a punishment for killing missionaries or other representatives and burning their property. Shortly after the settlement of Nanking, a terrible rebellion devastated a large part of China for fifteen years.

THE FIRST TROUBLED YEARS OF CHINA'S AWAKENING

These first years of China's awakening after the long sleep of centuries, have indeed been full of trouble and pain. There have been almost incessant wars with the neighbors who could no longer be kept out, with Russia, France, Germany, Japan, and during these wars China has learned by sad experience that her old ways of warfare, though picturesque in their setting, and almost sacred from long custom, were useless against those of her opponents. Now Chinese troops are drilled by Western methods.

THE BOXER RISING AND THE FLIGHT OF THE EMPEROR FROM PEKING

Naturally there has been much feeling against all the new ideas in this most conservative country in the world; the first railways were torn up as soon as laid; telegraphs were bitterly opposed, and Christian missionaries always carried their lives in their hands. So greatly have they been hated, in spite of the ability and devotion they have shown, especially in organizing relief in times of dreadful famine and plague, that in 1900 a great rising, called the Boxer rising, took place against the missionaries at first, but eventually all the hated foreigners were attacked. For two terrible months the European residents in China were in great danger. Many were killed, and others suffered all the terrors of a siege. They were shut up in Peking, with a howling mob eager for their lives outside, till relief came, and the Boxers were driven away. The allied forces made their way to Peking, and the emperor and his aunt fled far westward for safety, till peace was settled and justice done.

The efforts of missionaries in China have been sadly hampered by the actions of traders of their own faith, by their want of principle, and by the bad example that many of them have set. Great wrong has been done in the past by Englishmen in furnishing, for the sake of money, arms and help to the rebels who were devastating China when General Gordon came to the rescue, and by their insisting on sending into China the poisonous drug opium, against the wishes of the rulers; this also for the sake of gain.

The smoking of opium has quite as bad an effect on people as taking too much strong drink—it destroys them body and mind, and it has been a terrible curse to China. However, with the recent awakening of China, they have seen what a bad effect this opium had on them and have abolished it absolutely, even fining heavily any one they found possessing an opium pipe.

THE SIGHTS OF THE CITY IN WHICH THE GREAT EMPEROR OF CHINA ONCE LIVED

Foreigners have now gained more than a mere foothold on the shores of China. It is comparatively easy for them to pass from end to end of the beautiful and wonderful country. Many travelers have already done so, and they have shown us, by words and photographs, the marvels of this long shut-up land. Let us too, pass in.

There are three main ways of reaching China. We can go to Europe, thence by the Siberian Railway, branching off through Manchuria, and crossing the Great Wall to Peking; or we can travel to the East by going westwards—that is, by train across the mighty continent to the Pacific, where steamers take us across to its other side; or across the Atlantic by steamer, through the Suez Canal, to any chosen port.

All are most delightful and interesting journeys. Let us start at the "Court of the North." Peking contains at least a million inhabitants, and is near the Pei-ho River, at the mouth of which is its port, Tientsin. Peking is really made up of two cities, the outside Chinese city, where business is done, and the inside, or Manchu Tartar town, where the foreign embassies are.

The emperor held his great court in an inclosure full of splendid buildings in the center of the Tartar city. To this famous Forbidden City very few foreigners ever gained admission.

Grand, indeed, were the pageants to be seen when the emperor visited the Temple of Heaven to pray for a good harvest, leaving upon the mind a

dazzling blur of golden yellow—the imperial color of the Lord of the Yellow Land—of brilliant touches of blue, green, and crimson, as the trains of high officials in gorgeous array passed on in the procession. Long were the ceremonies, bowings, and prostrations, endless the prayers and readings from silken scrolls, as the incense floated towards heaven from bronze censers.

In China men seem to go on being examined all their lives, chiefly in order to obtain appointments. Our system of education is now entering into China and rapidly replacing the old.

Under their old system every government employe had to take an examination of which there were three grades, the highest being given only at Peking. They were examined chiefly on literature and philosophy. Mathematics was left out absolutely so that they could not do even a simple example of arithmetic without using a machine called the "abacus."

In taking these examinations, the candidates were given a subject for an essay, and then with food they were shut in a cell until they finished the composition, sometimes remaining for twenty-four hours.

In Peking are the imperial factories where the beautiful silks and china were made for the emperor to give as presents, and many splendid buildings, temples, tombs, palaces, and fairy-like gardens, stand out in striking contrast with the dirt and poverty everywhere to be seen. The dust—yellow dust—is dreadful in Peking, and penetrates into palace and hovel alike.

There are railways now being rapidly developed in many directions, especially in the rich delta plain of China, connecting the chief ports, and running far inland. Steamers, too, ply on the network of rivers and canals, besides the old-fashioned boats with square sails called junks, so familiar in Chinese pictures. Where the shifting bed of the Hwang-ho has to be crossed, the bridges are some of the longest in the world.

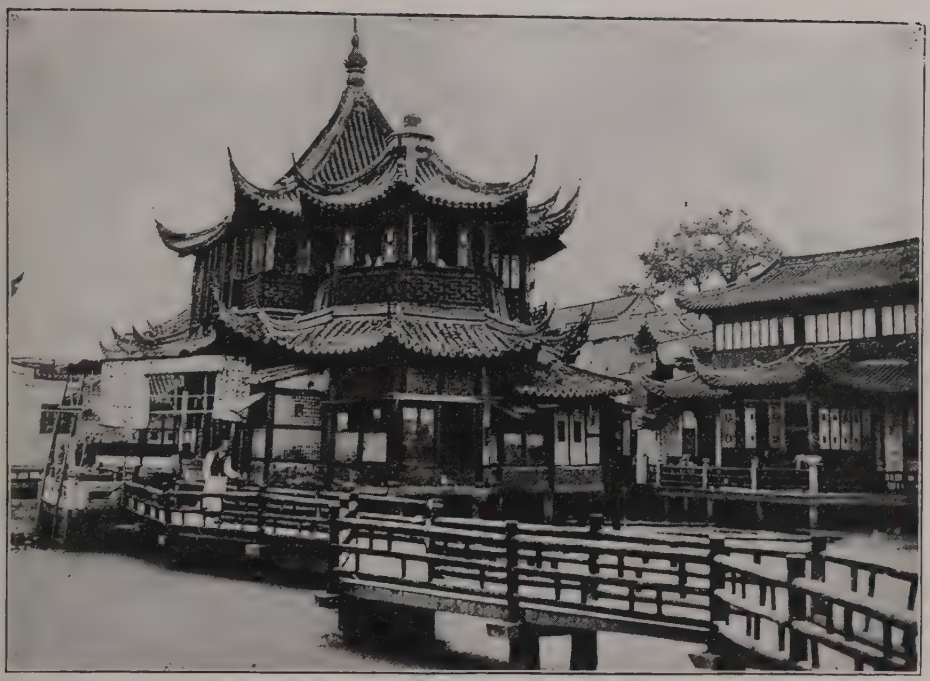
Shanghai is at the mouth of the Yang-tse River, and is the chief trade center of North China. Here we find rows of European houses and shops, with their names hanging downwards, instead of across a signboard; and the public gardens are full of most glorious flowers. Crowds of people, European and Chinese, rich and poor, throng the streets, and factories with smoky chimneys remind us of the new ways that have begun to replace the old.

Nanking—the "Court of the South"—is also a very important place on the Yang-tse River, and higher up still is Hankau, a great place for the tea trade. The porters waiting about for work on the tea steamers make us think of our dock laborers at home.

From Hankau it is still some distance to the wonderful Yang-tse gorges, a thousand miles up the river from Shanghai. The high precipices, and towers of rocks and pinnacles, all of most fantastic or massive shapes, are relieved by the lovely trees and shrubs, and a profusion of flowers all growing wild: such as larkspur, jasmine, white lilies, sunflowers, and many others that we grow in American gardens and hothouses.

It is exciting work putting the boats on the rapids, and communication between the two ends of this difficult part of the river has been improved.

The rich province of Szechuen—as large as France—is watered by the upper Yang-tse River, and is full of mountain and water beauty, as well as great, rich crops of all kinds. There is also an abundance of mineral wealth which adds to the material prosperity.



OLD SHANGHAI—THE WILLOW PATTERN TEA HOUSE

This building has been copied (as a design on chinaware) more than any building in the world. It is situated in the center of the ancient city in the middle of a stagnant pond and approached by a very crooked bridge called the Bridge of the Evil Spirits because it is supposed to be so crooked that no Evil Spirit can cross it.

SCENE OF CANTON RIVER WITH FLOWER BOATS

It is estimated that some 400,000 individuals live continually on boats in the streams and canals adjacent to Canton. It is a case of a city overflowing a river. The houseboats, recently destroyed by fire, served as places of amusement, restaurants, and for music.

THE GREAT CHINESE PORT OF HONG KONG THAT BELONGS TO BRITAIN

There are many wonderful Buddhist temples and monasteries all over the country, often on mountains that are most difficult to climb. Pilgrims visit the shrines of saints, as in Tibet and India; and prayer-wheels, and ringing of bells, and grand ceremonials, with reverence of the lamas, show how widespread is the ancient religion.

Hong Kong is an island having an area of about 30 square miles at the mouth of the Si-kiang, or West River, and it belongs to the British. It is now the largest seaport in the world, though it was a bare rock little more than fifty years ago. Macao founded centuries ago by the Portuguese just across the river remains now only in name. Victoria, its capital, has a splendid harbor, and on its long quays, and in and out of its hive-like warehouses, thousands of Chinese work, dealing with the immense stacks of goods—silk and tea, cotton and woolen goods, coal, and many kinds of food—which all pass through this great port overlooked by hills.

Canton—the City of Perfection—is also on the West River, and for long it was the only port open to Europeans. It lies about 90 miles from the sea, on low flat land intersected by numerous canals and streams. We heard before of the Yellow River overflowing the surrounding country but here the city itself of Canton has overflowed the river. About 400,000 people live in little boats, fastened one to another, boats which were never built to move, but to remain fastened to the banks, to serve as houses for the poor families who could not afford to buy land on shore. Canton is the metropolis of Southern China.

THE CRUEL CUSTOM OF CRUSHING AND PRESSING THE FEET OF CHINESE GIRLS

The very poor have a hard time in China, and among them baby girls are seldom welcomed, though every Chinaman is thankful and glad to have sons to carry on the customs connected with the worship of ancestors that alone can help them as they believe to happiness in a future life. It is one of the sights of China to see a family party setting off to the cemeteries on their great festival days, to honor, with gifts and feasting and enjoyment, the relations who have become "guests on high."

Two types. The dirty but well-fed beggar of the streets and a Chinese woman in her tea garden.

Formerly, little girls had a sad time of it, though now matters are slowly improving for them. Married when very young to a husband she had perhaps never seen, the custom has long been that the little Chinese bride should go to live in her mother-in-law's house, and become a mere drudge. And this was not the worst of it.

Centuries ago lived a princess whose feet were deformed and then the Chinese began binding with tight bands the feet of the baby girls so that when they were grown up their feet would be like the princess'. Year by year as the girls grew older the bands were tightened until at last the toes

TWO VIEWS OF THE CHINESE AT HOME

An Oriental Restaurant of the lower class showing Chinese laborers and coolies taking a little refreshment in the form of a bowl of pork-meat and gravy, a cup of tea and a pinch of rice.

The Chinese are the most learned people in the world although very impractical in the selection of knowledge. A Chinese school is different from ours in that they seem to vie with each other in making noise.

were crushed out of shape right under the foot, which was pressed into a tiny shoe much too small for the foot of a healthy baby of a year old.

We are filled with horror when we think of what the sad-eyed little Chinese girls go through to obtain little feet. Formerly, no Chinese girl could expect to be married unless she had small feet, and so, century after century, the cruel practice was carried on.

A WOMAN'S CUSTOM AND A MAN'S CUSTOM CHANGED BY OBSERVING FOREIGNERS

Since 1880 this horrible custom of binding the feet has been stopped by order of the emperor and for this blessing the efforts of foreign missionaries are the cause.

The same has been the story of the "pigtail." When the Manchus conquered China they made the Chinese leave their hair long as a badge of servitude and to distinguish them from their masters. This was centuries ago and slowly this peculiarity of appearance changed for the Chinese from a badge of inferiority to a source of great pride so that every boy was as proud of his pigtail as our American boys are of their first pair of long trousers. This custom, however, is a thing of the past and with the founding of the republic an order was issued to cut all pigtails. This reform came along with the many others recently introduced.

CHINA WILL BE A FUTURE POWER UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION AND INFLUENCE

Think of what a wonderful stability this civilization of China has been! China is the only country which through scores of centuries has remained intact in all its customs and institutions. It has outlasted all others. Ancient Egypt rose and fell. The kingdom of Babylon, the empire of Persia, Greece, Rome—all have come and gone while China has remained exactly the same through it all.

Now, however, within a space of fifty years all has been greatly changed and a remarkable revolution in ideas has come. China saw more of us Westerners and admired our ways of doing things. Many of her young men came to our country and studied, and then went back home filled with great ideas for the improvement of their country. What was the result! They abolished the empire and founded a republic patterned after the United States of America. They are very inexperienced, of course, in running a real government and so are really just "going to school" at it. We must accordingly be patient with them in the mistakes they make, and remember that it is impossible in fifty years to change absolutely a nation which has done everything and thought every thought in precisely the same way for four thousand years and more.

DEVOTION IN THE SILENT DESERT

THE SAHARA AND ITS INHABITANTS

THE Sahara Desert occupies the enormous approximate area of 3,500,000 square miles, if all the arid regions of North and North-Central Africa, without flowing rivers or fresh-water lakes, between the valley of the Nile on the east and the Atlantic coast on the west are included within its limits. Therefore, it is equal in area to the whole of Europe, minus the extreme Arctic regions of Russia.

This region, by its recent conditions of aridity, has played a very notable part in shaping the history of Africa. It has been the means of cutting off easy access between Mediterranean Africa and the fertile regions of the Sudan and Central Africa.

A very large proportion of the Sahara Desert rises high above sea-level, reaching in some of the mountains of Tibesti to nearly 9000 feet, and on the Ahaggar plateau, where snow lies for two or three months of the winter, to elevations between 7000 and 8000 feet. The greater proportion of the desert surface consists of bare rock, or of tracts of loose stones and pebbles, most of these having a water-worn appearance as though they had been rolled about by mountain torrents. A comparatively small portion of the area of the true Sahara Desert consists actually of loose sand or sand-hills; and although, under the action of the wind, sand-hills are still, on a very small scale, created and dissolved, and thrown into huge ripples like the waves of the sea, the greater part of the dunes (rising sometimes to a height of 300 feet above the surface) are now more or less fixed in outline, and are evidently gradually settling down into a new sandstone formation.

Although sandstorms are frequent at certain times of the year in the true Sahara, it is doubtful whether incidents have really occurred within historical times of caravans being overwhelmed and actually buried under the driven sands. These incidents are chiefly attributable to the Libyan Desert, eastwards of the great Sahara.

The Libyan Desert, which stretches nearly due north to south, from the limestone hill ranges of Barka to the confines of Darfur and Nubia, is a region of shifting sands nearly 500,000 square miles in extent. This has justly been called "a dreadful wilderness." Here, indeed, is a waste of sands rising in

A DESERT CARAVAN

Here one is brought face to face with the reality of caravan travel in the Sahara Desert. Wonderful as a picture, striking in its dramatic possibilities, and full of historical suggestion, the caravan is viewed by no spectators during the weary, monotonous days that pass in the desert. The heavily laden camels, their cargoes covered with vari-colored cloths, and their drivers in white burnooses, have no thought for the spectacular side of their work.

low ridges to scarcely more than sixty feet, wherein the northwest and southeast winds raise enormous volumes of sand high into the atmosphere, sufficient to bury whole armies like that of Cambyses, which is supposed to have perished in this region in attempting to reach the Sudan.

THE SCOURGE OF THE DESERT

As the color plate shows, the simoon, as described by writers, must have presented a majestic and awe-inspiring spectacle. Its advent was usually signaled by the appearance of a rapidly spreading haze extending from the horizon till the whole sky was obscured by it. Then a hurricane, blowing from the south or east, drove columns of heated sand before it. There was no escape from its red scourge. Even at a distance from the actual storm "the eyes become red, swelled, and inflamed, the lips and skin burnt and chapped, while severe pain in the chest is generally felt in consequence of the quantities of sand unavoidably inhaled."

The Sahara Desert again and again presents the vivid contrast of Hell and Paradise. Dotted over the blazing desert (wherein the fierce heat of the day is, throughout the winter half of the year, balanced by the freezing cold of night) are numerous, large and small, more or less historic oases, regions in which springs bubble up out of the sand or the rock, or wherein wells, sunk to a short distance, tap a never failing supply of water. Some of the springs may be hot and fresh, others cold and salt; but even these last, where they form brackish lakes and pools, to some extent nourish bird life and wild beasts, or assist vegetation by the moisture which is distilled from them through evaporation. Even if the surface water is salt or brackish, it is usually associated with underground supplies of water that are fresh enough to nourish an abundant vegetation.

ANIMALS AND BIRDS

The animals of the Sahara still include (though they are steadily becoming less owing to the attacks of sportsmen) one species of hartebeest —the Bubal, or the wild red cow of the Arabs; the Addax antelope, with its spiral horns; the Leucoryx, with

THE ADDAX ANTELOPE

Though becoming steadily less owing to the attacks of native and European sportsmen, the Addax antelopes, with their spiral horns, are still included among the fauna of the Sahara.

The wild sheep of the Sahara

very long horns curved like a slender scimitar; two or three species of the smaller types of gazelle, and the handsome long-legged, long-tailed, long-necked Mhor gazelle, boldly colored in reddish-brown and white, and figuring a good deal in the drawings of prehistoric man. There is the great desert sheep—the Udad of Algeria, Morocco, Western Egypt, and Tibesti. There are several species of desert mice and rats, and one or two large rodents allied to the porcupine group. There are the striped hyena and the North African jackal; the cheetah or hunting-leopard; the Caracal lynx. The lion, apparently, is now only found in the Air and Asben mountains in the southern Sahara, and it may also linger in the mountain country of Tibesti and far to the west of Adrar.

As regards birds, there are huge vultures of several species, and one or two desert eagles; there are (in the south) black and white ravens; there is, of course, the ostrich. There are sand-grouse and turtle-doves, bustards and cream-colored coursers. The scrubby hill regions on the verge of the Sudan contain flocks of guinea-fowl and crowned cranes. The birds most commonly seen in the desert regions are black and white chats, gray and fawn larks, and buntings. One of these is an exceedingly pretty little bird, which is apparently peculiar in its range to the northern Sahara between Tripoli and Morocco. This is most abundant in the far south of Tunis, and is called by the Arabs, Bu Habibi, "the father of my friend." It is even tamer than the robin, and especially delights in frequenting human habitations.

Its coloration is a blue-gray head and breast contrasted with the bright chestnut of the rest of the body and wings.

Types of Races

The human races of the Sahara and Libyan deserts at the present day consist of three main types; the Tuaregs, the Tibbus, and the Negroes. The Tuaregs are from every point of view the aristocrats of the desert.

A TUAREG MAN

The Tuaregs are the aristocrats of the desert. They represent a Berber population which, about 2000 years ago, began to penetrate and conquer the Sahara.

They represent a Berber population which, about 2000 years ago, began to penetrate and conquer the Sahara Desert between Mauretania on the north and Nigeria on the south. The very tribe that once gave Africa its

name (Avriga, Afrika) and dwelt on the east coast of Tunis, migrated in the course of centuries to the very heart of the Sahara, the Ahaggar region, where their descendants are still known by the clan name of Aurigha. The Tuaregs when of pure blood are a very handsome people, tall, shapely, and resembling the best types of Southern Europe. They are, of course, closely allied to the Berbers of Algeria. The Tibbus, on the other hand, though they vary much in type, and some of them are like Somalis in appearance, have a great deal more negro blood in their veins, and are very dark in complexion. The Negroes, inhabiting the oases and countries like Air and Damerghu, are either of the Songhai or Hausa stock. In the far west—the Atlantic regions of the Sahara—there is a good deal of Arab intermixture, which, together with negro blood, has created a black type of Senegalese Moor, speaking a much corrupted form of Arabic.

Desert cave dwellings

In the Tunisian and Tripolitan parts of the Sahara, more especially in the region of limestone formations, there are the celebrated cave dwellers whose habitations were first described by Greek geographers before the Christian era. In Southern Tunis the cave dwellings are of very great interest, as they range in style from the almost untouched cavern, associated with the habitation of prehistoric man, to the elaborate, elegantly-shaped, and furnished dwellings carved out of the heart of the limestone rock.

We have first of all the rock shelter. This is too open in its natural condition, so its sides are built up with stones and sticks to make it less drafty and more defensible. Then, as its accommodation proves insufficient, its inhabitants have taken to cutting into the soft rock and excavating it in course of time to a more commodious dwelling. Then it has occurred to them, at a later state, to create these dwellings without any natural beginning. First they would take advantage of some great smooth wall or cliff of limestone rock and cut a tunnel into it, and from this tunnel they would gradually enlarge and excavate a whole series of apartments.

In course of centuries they became so adroit and found the limestone so easily carved and yet becoming so indurated when exposed to the air, that they not only planned the excavation of fairly large and high apartments, but as they cut them away they designed and left portions of the rock, which they carved into beds, tables, brackets, and stools, so that nowadays, if this style of house is adopted and planned, the architect-excavator carves the apartment with all its furniture, which, of course, is literally a fixture.

But another style of underground dwelling that, on the whole, is the most popular and commodious at the present day in the Tunisian Sahara, was not made by carving at right angles into a vertical surface, but downwards into a horizontal surface. The people chose some extensive region of flat limestone rock, and first of all excavated a very large square space, just as we might, in course of time, make a square chalk-pit. Then, starting at a distance of a hundred yards or so, they excavated diagonally a large tunnel which should lead along a gentle incline from the surface of the ground into the bottom of this deep excavation. These tunnels have to be high enough for camels to pass down them. From the bottom of the first square excavation, which serves as a kind of hall or courtyard, they carved out a number of apartments all round. These derive their air and

light from the central, square courtyard.

The charm of these underground dwellings is that they maintain an equable temperature all the year round. In the summer they are cool, in the winter they are warm—so warm that though it may be freezing hard on the ground above, they need no artificial heat to be comfortable down below. Being in the Sahara Desert, they are always dry, though perhaps once in a while there comes a rare downpour of rain which for a time covers the floor of the central courtyard with water; but this is generally drained off by one or more shafts excavated downwards into the rock.

These strange, rock-hewn, north Saharan cave dwellings seem to be as healthy as they are comfortable. In some of them there is actual elegance in the appointments. On the marble-like floor are disposed handsome rugs and mats, and screens of beautiful tracery are made of pierced walls of rock which separate the private apartments from the central courtyard.

DESERTS THE RESULT OF CHANGING CLIMATE

The present deserts of the earth have not always been arid but once were moist and they may again become places where life abounds. For, as we have seen, the quantity of vapor in the air changes gradually through long periods of time, and it may change again and again.

Deserts are terrible places, though they have their own solemn beauty and impressiveness. We cannot realize what the lack of water really means until we have visited a desert and witnessed its barren, lifeless wastes.

One of the great desert belts of the world includes central Asia, Arabia and the Sahara. The chief reason for this long and almost continuous stretch of desert is that drying winds from the northeast blow across this region taking up the moisture instead of permitting its precipitation. In our own country there are arid areas, especially in the southwestern portions.

New Mexico, Arizona, Southern California, Nevada, Utah and their surroundings are more or less arid, chiefly because the moisture laden winds from the Pacific have most of the vapor taken from them as they pass over the mountains, and there is little left for the lands to the east of the ranges.

A TYPICAL OASIS

PECULIARITIES OF ANIMAL AND PLANT LIFE IN THE DESERT

It is a very interesting fact that those plants and animals which still manage to live in the desert, have gradually changed themselves to meet the hard conditions, which surround them and to live without much water or so to retain the little water they do find, that it will last until another

shower comes. Some plants like the cactus have thick, pulpy stems, which are well adapted to hold moisture, or the plants may have a thick rind or bark, which prevents the escape of moisture. Other plants develop enormously long roots, which penetrate far down to more permanent supplies of water. In the same way animals have all sorts of contrivances to get on with a minimum supply of water, or to withstand the heat and dust of the desert; the camel is a striking example of this statement. The desert also has its influence upon man himself and modifies him to some extent and has a marked effect upon his habits of life and his customs.

Grazing is a common form of occupation, the people are ever on the move following the flocks from one grazing ground to another.

Nomads of this type are frequently marauders and gain their living in part by attacking caravans or looting peoples on the edge of the desert.

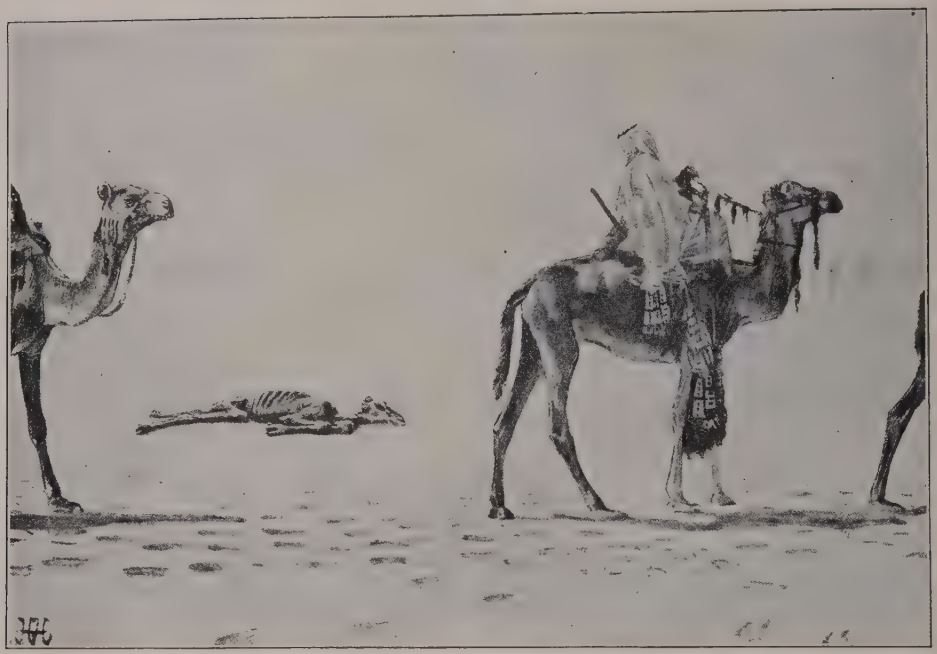
The desert is a dreary, monotonous place, life there has a great sameness, there is little physical work to be done, little cooking is required and there is little to engage the attention of men. Under these circumstances men think much on some of the deeper problems of life, two of the great religions of the earth were developed in deserts. The art of the desert is influenced by the surroundings and this is also true of the literature. Deserts are great barriers and people, who live there are apt to be isolated, they are shut off from the rest of the world.

They are therefore backward in the development of culture, they have primitive tools and weapons. Old customs, ancient styles of dress, prevail century after century, long after they have disappeared from more favored regions.

There are many evidences that in some regions there has been gradual desiccation going on for a long period. In Arizona there is a famous petrified forest, which once was a living forest. When it was growing, there must have been a good supply of water, though now there is little there and forests could not now possibly grow in that particular region. There are many of these petrified tree trunks lying scattered over the ground, at times, in great abundance. They testify eloquently to the great change that has taken place in the climate of the region, since they were living so many thousands of years ago. In other regions of the globe there are evidences that even in historic times there have been marked changes in climatic conditions, especially toward aridity.

For instance in central Asia there are districts where the area of land available for pasturage or for cultivation has been much reduced in the last two thousand years. Palestine is much less fruitful than it was in the time of Christ. Alexander the Great crossed Persia with a large army, where now it is very difficult to cross with a small camel caravan, without suffering for lack of water. Great Salt Lake in Utah was in recent geologic times many times larger than it now is, it was a fresh water lake and discharged northward into the Snake river. The growing aridity of the climate has reduced the lake to its present dimensions and has changed the nature of the water itself. The salt lakes of central Asia were once much more extensive than they now are as is shown by their old shore lines and beaches.

Thus the Caspian sea was at one time six hundred feet higher than it is at present and that in comparatively recent time. In Syria and Arabia



THE MIRAGE

Fantastic pictures are formed out of the most dreary, objectless vistas of sand or rock. The representations of lakes, bordered with bluish blobs which look like palm-groves or masses of umbrageous trees, are so real as to deceive the very elect. Apparently, also, animals are deceived by the alluring suggestion of distant water.

the ruins of large towns and cities are found where at present there is no adequate water supply, these facts testify to a marked alteration in climate.

When the climate changes in the way illustrated above, and it gradually becomes more arid it causes not only the destruction of forests but it brings great hardship upon animals and upon man himself. Where once there were fields of grain, fruit orchards, abundant pastures, destruction slowly enters, the fields dry up, the trees die and man is forced to migrate to more favorable regions.

It may well be that the great irruptions by hordes of barbarians from Central Asia into Europe and down into India may have been the result of growing aridity in their ancestral homes, making it impossible to secure their living there.

About one-fifth of the land area of the globe may be regarded as desert at the present time, this is a larger area than existed a few thousand years ago, but not larger or even as large as has existed in the geological past.

Dreary and desolate as the desert is it is yet a place of great beauty; the rocks are usually highly colored, browns, reds and yellows. Sunrise and sunset colors are gorgeous often, and there is over all that yellowish desert haze, that softens and shades the otherwise glaring colors into attractive tones and effects.

No contrast on earth is more striking than that between a great forest and a desert, one is a place of life, a source of life. The leaves, fruits and seeds of the forest offer food to animal life and indeed make it possible. The trees of the forest

help to purify the air by withdrawing the carbon dioxide from it and restoring the life giving oxygen to it. The forest helps to change the soil and on the whole helps to enrich it, in all of these ways the forest is preparing the way for more life.

THE MIRAGE — HADES AND PARADISE CONJOINED

Among the natural phenomena connected with the Sahara, (and other deserts) which has seized on the popular imagination, is that of the mirage. The sand abnormally heated by the fierce sunshine, sets up a current of heated air which expands and has its refractive index altered in such a way as causes it immediately above the sand or rocks to become a mirror. Distant objects seen through this air are enlarged and doubled and the reflection of the sky on this surface of sun-baked ground appears like a lake. It is possible even that objects below the horizon are refracted upwards and made visible so that fantastic pictures are formed out of the most dreary, objectless vista of sand or rock. The representations of lakes bordered with bluish blobs which look like palm groves or masses of umbrageous trees are so real as to deceive the very elect. Apparently also the mirage is visible to the sight of horses, oxen and camels, who are allured by the deceptive suggestion of distant water. The only feature about the mirage which is suspicious is the very indeterminate edge of the water in the middle distance. You never see a well defined shoreline on the nearer side of the supposed lake. But as this appearance occurs along the shores of real sheets of water in the desert and is due to the glare of the sun on the wet sand or mud, it seldom disturbs the illusion of the mirage.

THE SPHINX

EGYPT'S WONDERFUL STORY

WE gladly make our way to the country shaped like a lotus lily with a long stalk, lying on the bosom of the hot and sandy mid-world desert. For when we glance at the country as it is today, and at its history during the last 2000 years, we are reminded at every turn that a great and wonderful past lies behind those years. We cannot help seeing the stupendous work which that past has left scattered over the face of Egypt, so vast are the buildings and ruins still standing on the banks of the Nile and on the edge of the desert.

And so it is that, deeply interesting as we find the land today, we cannot help feeling that the true glory and greatness of Egypt lie in distant times.

It is not easy to realize that the time of subjection to the Romans, about 2000 years ago, which brought the westernmost portions of Europe into the light of day, came to the dwellers by the Nile at the close of a grand and eventful independent history, reaching back probably 5000 years and more before the Christian Era.

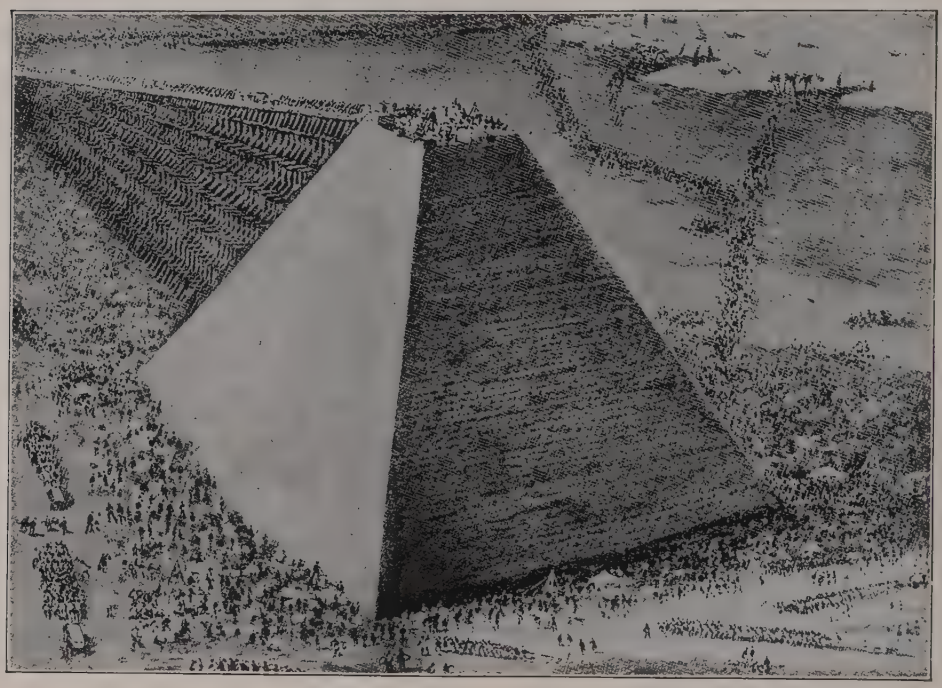
It is hard to appreciate when standing in front of the step pyramid at Sakkarah that seventy centuries have elapsed since this pile was erected—that its age is three and a half times that of the Christian Era.

The pyramids will help us; they rouse our curiosity as we look at modern Egypt and consider the fine crops, and wonder at the Suez Canal and the great dams of the Nile. So let us now without delay mount to the top of the Great Pyramid, as the largest of the three pyramids near Cairo is called.

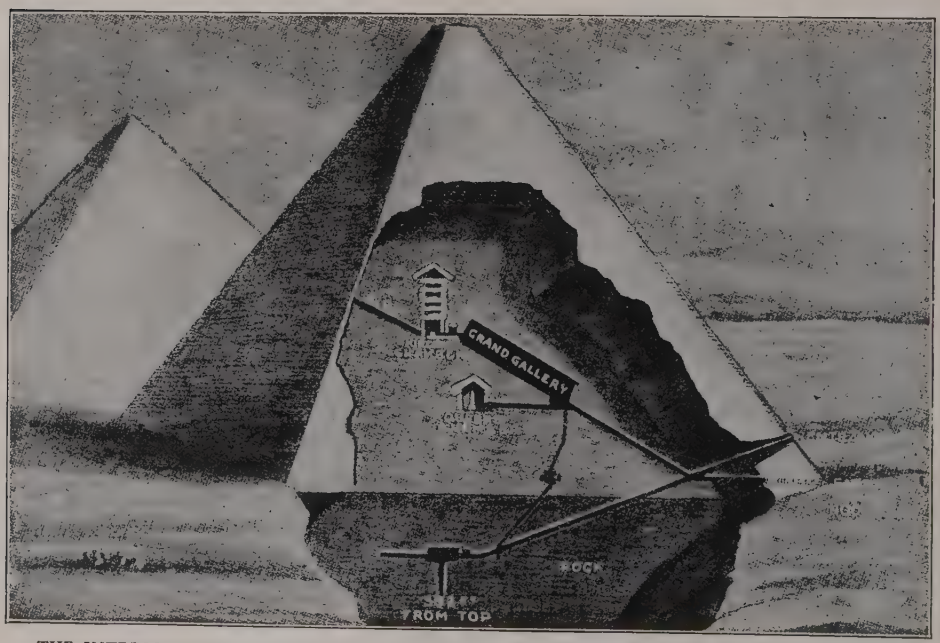
We shall not find it an easy climb, for it is nearly as high as the Washing-

THE HOUR OF PRAYER

The camel-driver is performing the obligatory prostrations of the prayer-code of Islâm at the Pyramids of Gizeh, near Cairo; the Great Pyramid being the farthest to the right, though it looks the smallest on account of its greater distance.



THE BUILDING OF THE GREAT PYRAMID BY MEN MASSED TOGETHER LIKE ANTS



THE INTERIOR OF THE GREAT PYRAMID SHOWING THE WAY TO THE KING'S CHAMBER

ton Monument, and the rough blocks of stone, which we have to use as steps, are many feet high. But two strong Bedouins in flowing white garments will push and pull us all the way up, chattering broken French and English, till we arrive breathless at the top. The outer coating of the pyramids has during the past centuries been torn away to such an extent that it may practically be said that modern Cairo has been built from the pyramids. There is an area some twenty feet in diameter at the top where one may rest and look about the country. There below us is the full, flowing river, which, except in the bad famine seasons that have come from time to time through the long history, has risen yearly from its bed and fertilized those green and yellow fields with its water and mud. During all those years, perhaps 6000 and more, the glorious sun, day by day for over 2,000,000 times, has risen from out the tender-glowing colors of the dawn beyond the eastern desert, has traveled in glory across the busy, fertile Nile valley to its evening setting in a blaze of gold and crimson behind the grim, silent hills of the western desert.

A near view of the sloping gallery of the Great Pyramid leading to the chamber where a Pharaoh was buried.

No wonder that the sun, the giver of life, held ever chief place among the gods of the old Egyptians. And each night after its disappearance, the deep purple sky, ablaze with dazzling stars in the clear air, has ever covered, as with a curtain, multitudes of tired workers, and countless generations of them, not only those whose daily labor was in the fields, or keeping the embankments in order, or raising the water where needed, all through the long centuries, but builders and workmen of all descriptions without number.

THE MIGHTY ARMY OF MEN WHO SET UP EGYPT'S SPLENDID BUILDINGS

Grand and immense buildings, such as those we see by the banks of the Nile, exist only as the result of the movement of material — hard and laborious work indeed— by thousands of human beings.

As we come down the pyramid, a task more difficult for some of us than mounting, let us try to realize that the great mass is solid, except for the passages and the funeral chambers to which they lead. The intense darkness inside the pyramid is awe inspiring. It is a somewhat arduous task to climb the incline leading to the King's Chamber and the plainness of the vault itself is rather unrewarding for the effort made.

The base of the Great Pyramid covers nearly thirteen acres. What a scene must have been the building of such a base and such a height, so many centuries ago. In these days of wonderful achievement it is hard for us to conceive of the method by which the pyramids were constructed. We know that all the stone used was transported from the hills back of Cairo across the Nile, but how the

separate stones were elevated to their final position will probably always remain a mystery.

But the huge granite facing-stones of the pyramid had to be quarried near the great dam at Assuan, and brought down the river for several hundreds of miles, and then, with enormous toil, men had to drag, push, and roll them over the burning sands.

THE HUNDRED THOUSAND SLAVES WHO BUILT A KING'S TOMB AS HIGH AS A HILL

The rest of the masses of material were equally difficult to obtain. And let us think of the stupendous work of getting it all into place by means of pulleys and rollers and the most exact human skill in masonry ever known. It is said that 100,000 slaves took part in this huge piece of work.

We may well wonder what was the object of building the pyramids at such immense cost and labor. As far as we know it was solely for the honor and glory of the reigning king, and to provide a secure resting-place for his body after death. For one of the chief points in the religion of the old Egyptians—that wonderful religion which changed so little during its long history—was to arrange, so far as means would allow, for preserving the body, as long as possible, whole and entire.

This they did by making mummies of the bodies, by soaking them in a strong kind of soda, and bandaging them very carefully, and then putting them in decorated coffins, which were hidden away in great stone vaults in rock tombs, and in the pyramids, where it was hoped that no one would ever be able to find or disturb them.

PHARAOHS WHOSE FACES WE MAY LOOK UPON IN CAIRO TODAY

Alas, for the last 3000 years at least, from time to time robbers have broken into the tombs, and disturbed what they found; and in our own days we can see, under glass cases in museums, specimens of the mummies of the great ones of Egypt brought once more into the light of day, after having lain in the dark silence for long centuries.

Perhaps we are wondering why the robbers of old were so anxious to break into the tombs, for they could scarcely care for the mummies themselves. It was the treasure that was buried with the mummies that attracted them; for the Egyptians believed that, in some mysterious way, in the new life to which he had gone, the departed person would need the things he had owned in his earthly life. So with the mummies of royal and rich persons were put their valuable ornaments and their possessions, besides furniture, clothes, and food for the use of the spirit of the departed, and the quaint little figures that were supposed to do the work that would be required in the fields of the land of peace.

It is the sight of these personal belongings that brings us into such close touch with the Egypt of 3000 or 4000 years ago. For we have in our museums cases full of such treasures as dolls with clay beads for hair, and the toys and little worn shoes and sandals of the children; the dressing-cabinet of the fine lady, containing ointments for the eyes—Egypt is still a trying place for the eyes—also elbow-cushions and dainty, pink kid slippers. We have, too, the palette and paints of the scribe, the musical instruments of the musician—in short, hundreds of articles of every-day use that bring us face to face with the people to whom they belonged centuries ago.

And besides these interesting personal belongings and thousands of little figures, with nets and field implements painted on them, there were always put beside the mummy representations of the numberless gods to

whom the Egyptians prayed, and to whom they erected wonderful temples, whose ruins still form one of the sights of Egypt.

THE STRANGE PICTURES AND SPLENDID TEMPLES OF ANCIENT EGYPT

There is a great group of these temples on the Nile, where the magnificent city of Thebes once stood, far on the way to Assuan. The great halls, imposing gateways, and rows of pillars form a beautiful sight in brilliant sunshine and deep purple shadow, and, as we gaze at them, we fancy them once more in their first beauty, with long processions of chanting priests and priestesses, and gorgeous display of kingly magnificence when the king came to pay his worship, amid the stately monuments of gold and silver, adorned with ivory and precious stones. And even yet we have not come to the end of our close touch with the past in Egypt, for we can now read the actual message across the years, written in the old Egyptian picture language, which had died out and been completely forgotten after the Roman times in Egypt.

If we look at the walls and columns of the temples, at the solid vaults, at the coffin-cases, at the sculptures and the wall-paintings, we shall find most of them covered with this picture writing. Until a century ago no one could guess what it all meant. Then an engraved stone was found at Rosetta, near Alexandria, now carefully preserved under glass at the British Museum, which has served as a sort of key to unlock the mystery.

HOW MEN SOLVED THE RIDDLE OF THE ANCIENT WRITINGS

On this stone is a certain decree about keeping a king's birthday, and the same decree is given in three different kinds of writing. The lowest is

This is one of the brilliantly decorated columns in the temple at Dendera. There are twenty-four such columns forming the portico. The temple was finished about 1900 years ago.

THE WAY INTO THE GREAT PYRAMID
The inner sepulchral chambers are approached by long sloping passages.

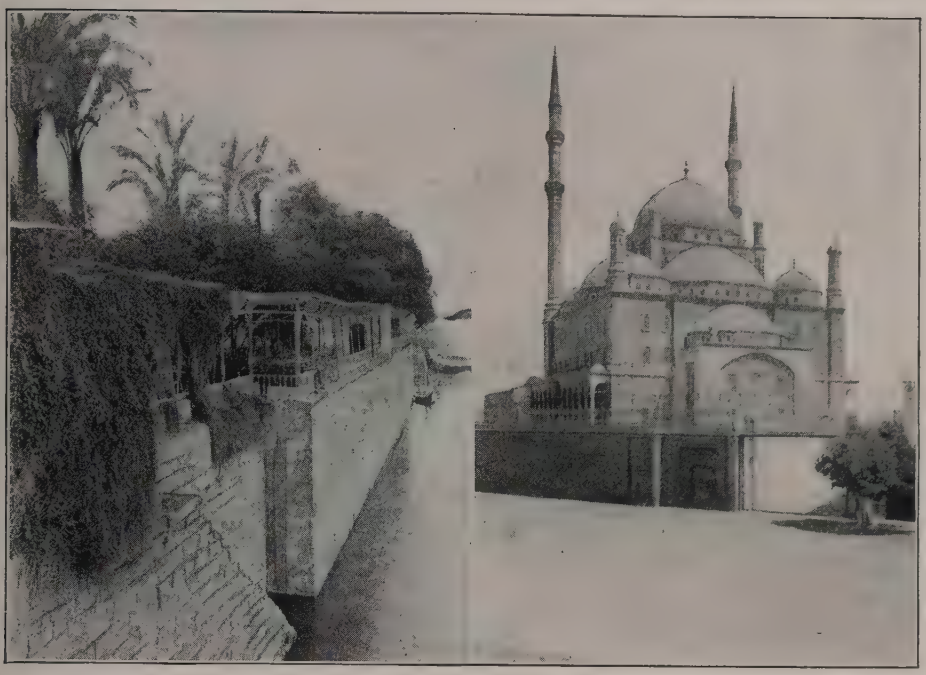
INSIDE SEVEN MILLION TONS OF MASONRY
The intense darkness inside the pyramid is awe inspiring.

in Greek, which scholars know well; the top is in the Egyptian picture writing used on the monuments and the middle one is also in the Egyptian language, but in a more running kind of writing used for everyday purposes by the people.

Learned men, who love finding out the puzzles of the past, set to work translating this decree, and comparing it with certain lists of kings' names they had already studied, till at last it was all straightened out, and the values of the signs discovered, so that we can now stand by and listen to those who know hieroglyphs, as they translate the old Egyptian writings as easily as if they were in English print.

And this discovery and study have also opened up to us the old books and chapters of books constantly found in the tombs. These were in long rolls, or *papyri*, so called from the material on which they are written. This is the inner part of the papyrus reed, that grows in such profusion on the Nile banks, and from which we get our word "paper."

The work of the scribes was to make copies of these papyri. The one most copied is called the Book of the Dead, parts of which are believed to be older than the pyramids themselves. Certain chapters of this book were always laid beside the mummies, to instruct them what to say and how to behave in the underworld. There is no end to the interest of the Book of the Dead, not only on account of its entrancing illustrations, but also for the teaching it gives about the religion of Egypt, and how men tried to fit themselves in life for a happy hereafter; and how they expected to be judged, and how they believed they



MEASURING THE HEIGHT OF WATER

Nileometer: This marked gauge approached by a flight of steps has for centuries been used in the daily watch of the Nile's height, so essential to the life of Egypt.

MOSQUE BUILT OF ONYX MARBLE

This famous Alabaster Mosque copied from St. Sophia's of Constantinople, is situated inside the citadel on the summit of the hill and is a landmark for miles around.

would live and work on their way through the underworld.

Besides this and other religious books, there are many other papyri of great age, and they include fairy-tales, war poems, medical and astronomical books, and also lengthy instructions as to behavior.

Every year diggings and explorations are being carried on in the search for more temples and tombs, inscriptions and papyri, to fill in the gaps in our knowledge of the story of old Egypt.

ONE OF THE GREATEST MUSEUMS IN THE WORLD

The Egyptian Museum founded by Mariette at Cairo contains one of the most wonderful exhibits covering ancient life in the world. It is approached in interest only by the Museum of Naples which contains the relics recovered at Pompeii. For example a few years ago one of the small pyramids was opened and in it were found the remains of an Egyptian Princess who lived some 5000 years ago. Among her possessions was a rubber-tired chariot, wooden wheels and solid rubber tires some two inches thick. In just what way the native gum was treated we do not know but the results were similar to those gained in our solid rubber tire of today. Food placed in these tombs has been recovered; and in one tomb jars of honey still palatable were found. Resting in a glass case lies the mummy of Pharaoh the persecutor of Moses. Little did he believe when he died three or four thousand years ago that he would be resting in a glass case to be gazed upon by the multitude. He is a man of stern appearance with a great deal of character and personality

written in the lines of his face. Just how many more tombs lie undiscovered beneath the sands no one knows but new ones are being continually brought to light, those which evaded the robbers of medieval times.

AN EGYPTIAN KING WHO REIGNED NEARLY SEVEN THOUSAND YEARS AGO

Scholars are inclined to put back the beginning of that story farther and farther. The first historical king of all Egypt is put by some in the forty-fifth century before Christ. Some think that Menes, who turned the course of the Nile, lived much earlier. Before him there are legends of god-kings and heroes, and kings of small states. Specimens of very old pottery, with pictures upon it of soldiers and boats, strangely like children's drawings of today, give an idea of the first known life on the Nile long before Menes.

For the sake of convenience, in dealing with the great number of kings who followed Menes, we generally group them into thirty or more dynasties, or families, and the names are gleaned from the various lists of kings on tablets and papyrus, made from time to time through the centuries, which have come down to us. When looking at inscriptions we can always distinguish royal names, because they are surrounded by an oval line, supposed to be a cord tied in a knot to preserve the name from contact with common ones. This oval is called a *cartouche*. Before the king's name will generally be found some Egyptian words composed of a sign like an umbrella and an insect over two half-circles. These signs mean King of the North and South, for Egypt is such a long, narrow country that it was long divided into two parts, and so we often hear of the Double Crown, which is made up of the red crown of North Egypt, and the white crown of South Egypt.

THE KINGS OF EGYPT WHO CALLED THE SUN THEIR FATHER

Each king also called himself Son of Ra, or the Sun, which is shown by a goose and the round sun with a dot in the middle. The names of the kings are chiefly made up from about a dozen signs, which we meet with continually in every inscription.

Very little is known of the kings of the first three dynasties. It was under the rule of the fourth, perhaps—some say in the thirty-seventh century before Christ, others 1000 years earlier still—that the three great pyramids near Cairo are believed to have been built by Chu-fu, by Cha-f-Ra, and by Men-kau-Ra.

THE MERCIFUL KING, WHOSE BODY WAS LOST AT SEA

The mummy of the Men-kau-Ra and his sarcophagus were put on board ship to be transported to England but near Spain the ship encountered a severe storm and sank; and this priceless treasure was lost to the world. It is said that the sixty-fourth chapter of the Book of the Dead was compiled in his reign.

Not far from these Pyramids of Gizeh is an enormous monster, hewn out of the living rock, with a human head and the body of an animal.

The Sphinx has always been a mystery as it has never been discovered when it was built or for what purpose although a small temple has been found between the paws. It was evidently in existence long before the pyramids were built and is carved out of the native rock. It is almost covered up by the sand which seems to fill in about it as rapidly as it can be excavated.

HOW ABRAHAM ENTERED INTO THE BUSY LIFE OF THE NILE VALLEY

Many interesting tombs belong to this period of, perhaps 2400 before Christ. One of them has wall-paintings, representing the arrival in the

country of a family, such as that of Abraham, the great founder of the Jewish race. The story of his visit to Egypt in search of food, when there was a famine in his own country beyond the Isthmus of Suez, is familiar to us in the pages of the Bible. What a change it must have been to the patriarch, for many years used to a wandering tent life and the silence of wide spaces, to enter into the busy life of the Nile valley, with its great cities and huge buildings, and to see the luxury and splendor of the king's court! It must have carried him back to his boyhood, to his native land, where there were also great cities and much wealth, a country as old as Egypt itself.

We can well imagine that Abraham would tell stories of this visit to Egypt to his son Isaac, that he in turn would tell them to his son Jacob, and Jacob to his sons, and, among them, to his favorite, Joseph. Let us follow Joseph on his sad journey over the "Bridge of Nations" to slavery in Egypt, fitting in all we can to make real the daily life of the handsome lad, so cruelly torn from his home.

Joseph and his brethren and Pharaoh, who would not let his people go

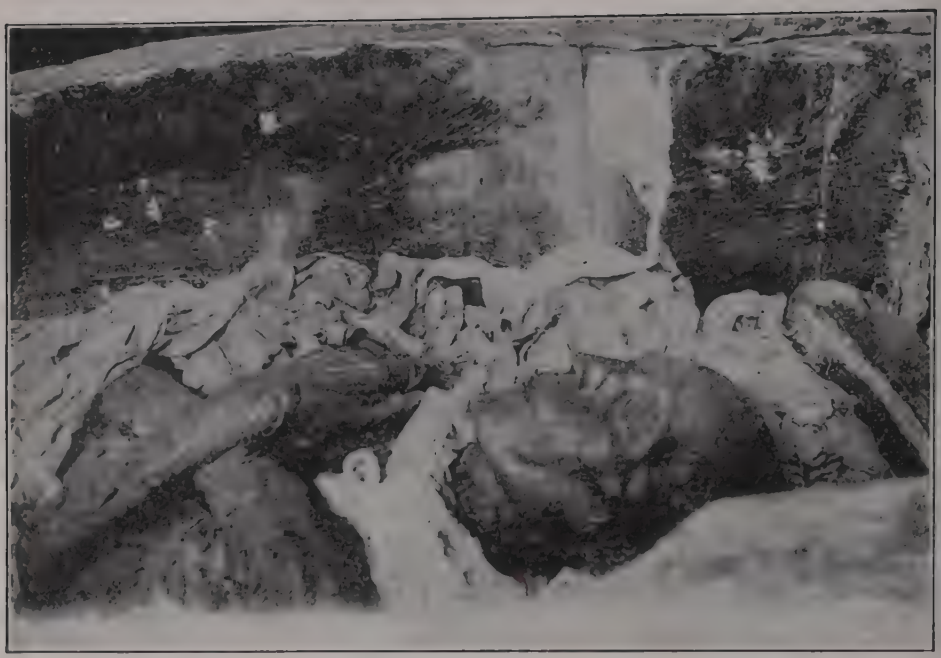
Fashions changed so little in Egypt for centuries that we can well borrow those seats and other furniture and paintings in the cases around, to put in the palace of the king to whom Joseph became as a son, and we may fancy them together discussing earnestly affairs of State—the king on his throne, in a black wig of little curls and plaits, like the one found in a reed box; and Joseph, with his reed pens and paints, reading his report from a papyrus roll. Later on comes the touching welcome to the old father and all the family, who had come across the isthmus, with all their worldly possessions, to settle in the land where Joseph had become such a great man.

Little is known of the history of Egypt at this time, for the kings who ruled them—believed to be a race of foreigners—destroyed monuments rather than set them up. But when these Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings, passed away, many famous names of builders and soldiers rose up during the years that Israel lived in the "House of Bondage." Among them was Thothmes III, who inscribed and set up the great obelisk which we call Cleopatra's Needle—though the famous queen lived several centuries later.

This pillar now stands on the Thames Embankment in London. Thothmes III was one of the first kings of Egypt to make war across the isthmus, both on the nations in the mountains of Syria and in the valley of the two great rivers beyond the desert.

Oppression of the children of Israel

Then there was the great queen Hatshep-su, often called the Elizabeth of Egyptian history. She sent most interesting expeditions to discover unknown countries, and had an account of them, with fine illustrations, engraved on the walls of a magnificent temple she built near Thebes. But, interesting as is this strong queen, who tried so much to look like a man that she had a beard added to her portraits, we must pass on to the stirring times a little later when the descendants of Jacob, the children of Israel, had grown to be very numerous, and were grievously treated by the kings, or Pharaohs, as the Bible calls them, of the period. Rameses II is believed to have been the great oppressor of the Israelites, and we can see his face in the huge stone monuments he set up, and more wonderful still



SETI THE FIRST

It is hard to believe that this is the father of the Pharaoh who pursued Moses across the Red Sea

AN ARAB CAFE

These cafes are picturesque places where one sees the street life of Cairo at its best. Note the more humble style of Turkish pipe smoked by this Arab without being set on the floor.

is the photograph of his mummy which has been found with those of many of his race, and put into the museum in Cairo. Thus, the features into which so many looked with awe—perhaps the little Moses among them—are shown again to the world more than 3000 years after the great king's death. Magnificent were the temples and monuments set up by this dynasty of kings, among which we find the massive ruins at Karnak and Luxor, near Thebes. Bricks, such as the Israelites made for use in building store cities for their hard taskmasters, necklaces and jewelry, such as they may have taken when they "spoiled the Egyptians," are here in the museum before our eyes.

LIFE OF THE CHILD MOSES IN THE VALLEY OF THE NILE

As we again think over the romantic story of Moses rescued by the king's daughter, and brought up in the palace itself, we find endless objects with which to frame his life from childhood onwards. The toys and games, especially the animals—such as a modern looking spotted cow, and a cat with a movable jaw—must have pleased him, and a garden with trees and a pond, like one that is pictured on a wall, would be delightful for a child to play in. The little Moses may well have heard music from instruments such as those pipes and harps, and he must have enjoyed sailing and rowing on the Nile, in boats like those model ones on the shelves. The wall-paintings from the tombs show in their bright colors how the Egyptians amused themselves in the time of Moses, and before and after. There are the gay parties with music and dancing; a father getting birds with a sort of boomerang, the child holding on to his leg for fear of falling out of the boat; the mother gathering lotus flowers; the family cat retrieving the birds three at a time. And when the time came for the lessons, those reed pens and red and black paints were the sort with which the boy must have learned to write. One can fancy his enjoying the possession of one of those boxes of pens and paint, and see him poring over the papyrus rolls which held so much of the learning of the Egyptians. The Ten Commandments, brought down from Sinai by Moses had a great many details similar to the Book of the Dead which leads us to believe that there must have been much influence exerted by the latter on the former. The making and worship of the Golden Calf, which so angered the great leader, was suggested by the ancient worship of Egypt, brought home to us in endless forms by paintings and images of every description, as well as by the mummied forms of the animals held in such sacred reverence. For about 1000 years after this brilliant line of the Rameses dynasty, the history of Egypt, on the whole, was one of gradual decline and gathering trouble. It was during this time that the priests of the splendid temples became richer and richer and even more powerful, till at last they made themselves kings. When examining the mummies and their cases, we notice how many belong to priests and priestesses, door-keepers, incense-bearers, and other officers of the great religious colleges. Shortly afterward dynasties of foreigners came into power and the condition of the country became poorer with less resistance to outside foes when the kings of Assyria—the land of the two rivers—saw their chance, and began to attack Egypt on her own frontier, and then pushed their way over the Bridge of Nations. They overran the whole of the country, spoiling the harvests, so that the people starved, and their fine temples

One of the oldest forms of irrigating machinery in the world. The captive Hebrews in Mosaic times probably heard the creak of its ungreased wheels and watched the water gush from the pottery buckets which are fastened to the endless grass ropes.

SAKKAHS, OR WATER-CARRIERS

These men are sometimes negroes, as the seated man in the picture, as well as the boy who has taken water to drink from him. They are usually dervishes of the lowest grade, and are sometimes inclined to be fanatical. They are picturesque as well as a very necessary feature of Egyptian life.

and monuments began to fall into decay. We find the account of all this misery in the story of Assyria, where we find the description given by the conquerors with so much pride of their successes in Egypt. Egypt revived after this for a little while, only to be again devastated by the Assyrians, till they too fell under a new great power that rose in Asia, that of the Persians.

The Egyptians took every opportunity to revolt against the Persians. Between the second and third revolts, in the fifth century before Christ, a traveler came to Egypt, notebook in hand, for he was an author, anxious to collect material for his History of the Persian Wars. This was Herodotus, the Father of History, who set down in a pleasant, chatty way his impressions of the wonderful country, of the Nile in flood, of the pyramids, and other great buildings. Much of this interesting book we can read today, though Herodotus laid down his pen more than 2000 years ago.

EGYPT BECOMES A PART OF ALEXANDER'S WORLD EMPIRE

The Persians, in their turn, were driven out by the world-conqueror, Alexander the Great, of Greece. His stay was but short in Egypt; but his brilliant passage has left marks for all time. He flashed across the desert to worship at the shrine of the god Jupiter Ammon, whom he claimed as an ancestor, and he planned and founded the great city of Alexandria, called after him, which, under his successors, became one of the most important cities in the world. Alexandria still exists as one of the largest cities and principal seaports of Egypt. There are several interesting relics still extant in that city but on the whole it does not nearly approach the interest of interior Egypt.

Three centuries before Alexander an Egyptian king had employed Greek soldiers and allowed Greek traders to settle in the delta. Before this, Egypt had been closed to foreigners, much as China was till lately; but these Greeks found their way into the country, and little by little, their cleverness in trade, their wonderful power in art and in learning, spread Greek influence ever farther along the Nile. Naucrates became a famous Greek city during this time, and today explorers find much Greek treasure of all kinds buried in various parts of the Nile delta.

The kings succeeding Alexander were the Ptolemies, the first of the name being one of Alexandria's generals. They were great builders and restorers, and to them we owe the Temple of Edfu, and the temples on the Island of Philae, near the great dam at Assuan. The Ptolemies also favored the city, named Alexandria after the founder of their fortunes, and started in it the immense library, afterwards burned, also the university, to which came some of the most famous Greek scholars. Another Ptolemy built the tall lighthouse, which was like the pyramids, one of the wonders of the ancient world. The flare from its top guided the shipping of Alexandria safely into its double harbor for years, but not a trace of it now remains. The same Ptolemy caused the Old Testament, originally written in the Hebrew language, and understood only by comparatively few people, to be translated at Alexandria into Greek, the beautiful language which was soon to be carried over the known world, and become the language of scholars everywhere. Another good work of this same king was to cause an Egyptian scribe named Manetho, who knew Greek well, to write in that language a history of Egypt and its religion, and though his actual records have been lost,

TEMPLE OF LUXOR, EGYPT

THE GREAT DAM, ASSUAN, EGYPT

other writers have copied from Manetho, and thus the lists of kings and other particulars he so carefully compiled have been of great use.

The beautiful Cleopatra was the last great ruler of the line of Ptolemies, and, sooner than fall into the hands of the invading Romans, she is said to have allowed a deadly serpent to bite her. So when they came to her palace they found her in all her regal splendor —but dead.

From Menes to Cleopatra, what a perspective of years! Fifty centuries and more before the birth of Christ, 7000 years ago, all full of work, full of struggle and every kind of human interest, full of happiness and sorrow.

We have but to look at the vast view again, and much of the old life will become so vivid and real to us that we can almost hear the dancing feet of the children at play in the little worn shoes, and the sad wail of the mourners carrying the mummy to its hidden tomb.

Egypt today, as the case with most of these ancient countries is merely the shadow of its former self; its inhabitants lack the energy and power which seem to have belonged to their ancestors. The French some years ago constructed the Suez Canal and on a sandbar which was built up from the dirt out of the canal the modern city of Port Said was located. It is in some ways the most cosmopolitan city in the world being the gateway between the Occident and the Orient. In visiting Egypt the foreigner usually lands at Port Said or Alexandria, then there is a ninety mile trip by rail to the city of Cairo. It seems quite odd to be riding by street car the six miles out from Cairo to the pyramids. It seems such an awe-inspiring thing to connect these ancient monuments with such a modern achievement. It is, however, typical of Egypt today in that ancient and majestic relics are on one hand in contrast with the impudent signs of modern native life on the other; the little Bedouin children play and the burros graze over spots the penetration of the sanctity of which once demanded the penalty of death.

Any great change in the life of such an ancient people could never have come about without the work of the great river that runs through Egypt. Life cannot be supported without water, and Egypt, which seldom has any rain, draws its entire supply from the Nile. This river which draining a basin of over a million square miles of land, carries down to the sea the melting snows of the mountains and the water received during the rainy season in Abyssinia and tropical Africa. These rains flood the Nile; the river overflows its banks, spreads far out to left and right, and fertilizes the soil with rich earthy deposits gathered in its course. That sediment is the soil of Egypt, and without it the land would be barren rock and sand. Egypt lives upon powdered mountains, carried to it by the Nile.

After the time of flood the Nile used to run low, but engineers have now made great dams which prevent the flood water of the Nile from running away, so that all the year round a sufficient store can be retained for the use of agriculture.

THE GREAT ASSUAN DAM

A few miles across the sand lies Cairo, and through Cairo runs the Nile. Six hundred miles up the Nile is the great Assuan Dam, 1¼ miles long, 90 feet thick at the bottom, 90 feet high, and 20 feet thick at the top; and this huge Nile dam holds enough water to make the desert of Egypt blossom as the rose.

THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, LONDON.

THE STORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

THERE are some stories which are always full of interest, and among them are those that we like to hear when we sit around the hearth, and the dancing firelight plays on the faces of our homemakers.

"Tell us again what you did when you were young, or just one story more about what grandmother did when she was a little girl," is the cry. As the stories flow on—for father and mother love to tell as much as you love to hear—the life of the busy motherland of today, with the hum of its millions of workers, the clang and roar of its workshops and mills, all seems to be forgotten, as we step for awhile into the quiet land of yesterday.

You whose grandparents came from England know the stories? How grandmother, in a large beaver bonnet and silk pelisse, went, when a child, to Ramsgate in a stage-coach; how she slept at Canterbury, because the journey which you now do in two hours took two days. How she and grandfather used to enjoy walking about the sweet green fields and woods, and resting in strawberry gardens near the Crystal Palace or Primrose Hill, where now you see nothing but rows of houses and shops. How grandfather took a whole week in a sailing boat in rough weather to travel from London home to Berwick. If you have a great grandmother who lived long ago near any of those large manufacturing towns or ports that we have visited, such as Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, she can tell you stories of how rivers were deepened and widened, and docks built; how villages grew quickly to be large towns; how quiet country lanes became one wide stretch of factories and cinder-heaps, crossed and crossed by railway lines. These stories are as wonderful as those of the magic of the genii who made palaces appear at will. Our genii are steam, and machinery.

We are so accustomed to all the comforts and conveniences in the life of today, with our well-paved, well-kept, and well-lighted streets, cheap and quick means of getting from place

to place and sending messages, that perhaps we are apt to take them all as a matter of course. But it is not so long ago when there were no telephones, no motors, no tubes, no elevators, no telegrams, no electric light, no bicycles no railways, no gas in England. As we listen to the stories of life without all these things, and how they all came to be, we realize how times change, and what a contrast there is between the wonderful world today and the yesterday which ushered it in.

And what about the times before this yesterday? What happened in them? We can fancy the tide round those shores rising and falling day after day, year after year; the wind passing forever over the tree-tops, now gently, now roughly; the sun shining on and on, century after century, lighting up the waters of rivers and lakes and coloring the country sides. But what about the people of the past? We know, in a way, that life has been going on in the British Isles for many years; most likely some great names belonging to them stand out for us. We realize, too, as we look about us or study pictures, that buildings such as Westminster Abbey, the great cathedrals, the Tower, and many now ruined castles and churches were the work of the men of bygone days.

We can piece together the story of these days which are beyond the memory of living men by looking carefully at the work and relics that have come down from them and by reading in books and letters the descriptions of the times in which their writers lived. Often these writers have copied into their books excerpts from the writings of others who lived and wrote long before themselves.

WHAT WAS HAPPENING IN ENGLAND 2000 YEARS AGO

By these means we can follow a written history of England back and back for nearly two thousand years; and it is by this written history that we know what happened through the centuries which we mark A. D. These letters stand for Anno Domini, the year of the Lord; we count our years as they pass, from the date of the birth of Christ, 1914 years ago.

The years before His birth we mark B. C., before Christ. Now, if you ask how many centuries there were before Christ, this is what no one can tell you. The great earth-ball on which we live has been journeying round the sun—once round makes one year; a hundred times round makes one hundred years, or a century—for thousands of centuries. No one can say how many, for no one knows when the earth first started on the yearly journey, nor when men first appeared on its surface.

Perhaps you may think the twenty centuries which hold England's written history a long enough time to look across, filled as they are with stirring deeds and great changes. But if you wish to peer further back, and ask who were the very first men who lived in the country we must go back through the ages of unknown length to seek them.

WHEN WILD MEN AND WILD ANIMALS WALKED FROM ENGLAND INTO FRANCE

Perhaps you have read how cliffs have been worn away by the sea, a few feet in a year, or you have heard of earthquakes in other parts of the world raising or lowering whole districts; so you can understand that change is always going on in the shape of the land that rises above the sea. Now, the very oldest things found in England are some roughly chipped stone tools, which dropped from the hands of the men who made and used them when the country was not an island but was a part of the continent now called Europe. Wild animals, as well as wild men, could therefore roam

"We might have met on these old roads, the ancient British chieftain with his coat of skin, the Roman passing from fort to fort, the Saxon and the Dane, and the Norman Passing from keep to keep."

about as they pleased, with neither English Channel nor Irish Sea, as they are now called, to stop them. The white cliffs at Dover were joined to those at Calais, and the western parts of what are now the countries of France and Ireland showed an unbroken front to the great western ocean. You can judge of the size and strength of the wild animals who haunted that land by visiting the British Natural History Museum, where you can find those of the huge woolly mammoth elephants, of tigers—one of which has left the mark of his saber tooth on the bones he gnawed—of bears, lions, reindeer.

THE FIRST TOOLS THAT THE FIRST WORKMEN USED

The poor rough tools, shaped like a pear, found in the gravel beds or drift of old rivers, are ranged in numbers round the upper shelves in the Prehistoric Room in the British Museum; it is called prehistoric because the times to which they belong were before written history began. The owners of these tools looked out on the Thames stretching from the heights of Hampstead and Highgate to those of South London.

What became of the Drift men, or the Cave men, who followed, we do not know. The Cave men's tools are better made and in greater variety; there are harpoons to catch fish, arrow-heads to shoot birds, and bone needles to sew skins together, besides the sharp pear-shaped weapons for defense or for hunting.

The most interesting things the Cave men left behind are their drawings and carvings of the animals they saw before them; the great long-haired mammoth as he crashed along, the reindeer fighting, the oxen feeding, are all sketched from nature. Many specimens of these earliest drawings are found in the caves of England and France.

The earth-ball rolled steadily on through space year after year, century after century, and at last, as the ground sank in some places and rose in others, the sea rushed in over the lower levels and formed what is now called the North Sea, the English Channel, and the Irish Sea, and Father Thames shrank to a mere shadow of his former great size. After this men appeared again in England from over the sea now that it was an island; many different tribes followed each other, the newcomers pushing the others northwards and westwards, even across to Ireland and to Scotland.

NECKLACES THAT WERE WORN IN ENGLAND THOUSANDS OF YEARS AGO

As we look back to the far-off times of these settlers we find them very dark. They have left no names, no writing. Perhaps the great stones set up at Stonehenge were used by them as a temple; perhaps they were set up about seventeen centuries before Christ. Seventeen centuries B. C. and twenty centuries A. D. makes thirty-seven centuries—3700 years—ago!

The long and round grave-mounds, called barrows, still to be seen in many parts of the country are also believed to belong to the peoples of these times. In them are found skeletons and burned bones, together with the rougher cups and vessels you can see in the museum below the Drift and Cave men's tools. They are headed "Contents of British barrows." Sometimes a little child had a whole barrow to itself; sometimes many people are buried together. The ornaments, brooches, and necklaces found in them will interest us; also the tools of bronze found often in spots where they are supposed to have been made. In these early metal factories lumps of copper and tin, of which the bronze is made, often lie side by side with old tools to be remelted and made into new ones.

Then there are iron tools which came into use as time went on and fresh people came to settle in various parts.

We get a few scattered beams of light on these times from the visits of some travelers, who came chiefly to look after the tin found in Cornwall and elsewhere.

THE GREAT LIGHT THAT BEGAN TO SHINE ON THESE TIMES

When they reached home they did what many travelers do today; they wrote books about what they had seen. These were copied into other books, and in this way we hear of the barns in which corn was stored, the rich, sweet drink that the natives offered them, and so on. A few centuries later, in the first century B. C., a great light suddenly lit up the country in which we have been groping. By its help we can now see plainly the people who lived in it. They were the children's children of the tribes who settled there from time to time. We call them Britons, and their country is called Britain. Now whence came the light?

Let us take a map and find the Mediterranean Sea—the sea between the lands of Europe and Africa. The nations who lived on the shores of this great sea were very different from the Britons and other tribes living in the islands set in the wild Atlantic. They traded with each other; some were very learned; some produced the most beautiful temples and sculpture, as well as the bravest men, the world has ever seen. They all believed, however, that the part of the world on which they lived round the great sea was the whole of the world. They did not know that the earth is a ball, on which are the great continents of the Old World, as well as those of North and South America in the New. They imagined the earth to be flat, with a great river running around it, and extraordinary were the tales they told of the wild and savage people who lived on the "edge."

THE ROMAN SOLDIERS WHO BROUGHT THE LIGHT TO ENGLAND

These tales they generally made up; but sometimes, as we have seen, travelers went to see for themselves. Their tales were often wonderful, too!

Now, in the century just before the birth of Christ, one of these Mediterranean nations had succeeded in conquering all the others, so that it was master of the whole of the then known world.

This was the Roman nation, and a great Roman soldier and ruler who stands out in this first century B. C. was the light-bearer.

If we study the calm, determined face of Julius Cæsar we shall find out by degrees what made him so strong and so powerful. He could make himself do what he believed to be best, as well as he could control others. He was always at work, conquering and settling his conquests, looking after his soldiers, and yet he found time to write books about his travels, which schoolboys read now when they begin Latin. He gives many particulars about the Britons and their relations, the Gauls, whom he had just conquered. He did not conquer Britain; he visited it with his army two summers running, and described it to the civilized Roman world, who kept it in mind till a hundred years later. Then they were able to send enough soldiers to meet the warriors with faces stained blue to terrify them, to disperse the chariots with scythes on their axles, to take the hill-camps fortified with stakes and logs of wood, and in time to subdue all the country of the plains.

WHEN BRITONS AND ROMANS LIVED SIDE BY SIDE

Little by little, as the soldiers, who had better arms and had been better trained, gained ground, many of the

THE ROMANS AT WORK ON THE WALL THAT KEPT THE PICTS AND SCOTS OUT OF ENGLAND

THE REMAINS OF THE ROMAN WALL ACROSS ENGLAND AS SEEN TODAY IN CUMBERLAND

The Romans, when they ruled in England, 1,800 years ago, built two great walls in England and Scotland to keep out the men who were always fighting with them, and the walls are still to be seen in parts of the North of England. The wall across the North of England stretched 70 miles, from the mouth of the River Tyne to the mouth of the River Solway; the wall in Scotland was smaller, reaching from the Firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth.

Britons were swept further and further west to the high moors of Cornwall, to the mountains of Wales and Cumberland. It is to these parts we turn, especially to Wales, to find the people whose forefathers were mainly ancient Britons, and to find echoes of the language spoken by them. It was here too, that the old religion of the Britons, with the white-robed Druids, lasted longest.

Scattered all over the country, but chiefly in Wales, we find place-names that come from British words meaning a wood, a rock, a plain, an island, a waterfall, and many others more or less connected with the soil. Numbers of the Britons settled down, as time went on, under their Roman masters, from whom they learned many things. Some helped the soldiers to drain the marshes and cut down trees, and to make the fine roads which crossed the country, and are still a pleasure to use, so well and straight are they laid.

Boadicea, queen of England, and the brave chief Caractacus

Two great British names stand out in this first century A. D. The statue of Boadicea, queen of one of the British tribes, which stands on the embankment, by Westminster Bridge. She resisted the Romans, who had treated her very cruelly, with all her might. Caractacus was another great British chief. He not only lost everything in spite of his brave resistance, but was also taken prisoner to Rome with his wife and children. He did not behave at all as a frightened captive, but proudly, as a free-born king, said to the Roman emperor: "You fight to gain the whole world, and to make everybody your slaves. I fought to keep my own land, and for freedom."

For nearly four hundred years Britain was part of the Roman Empire. Great generals like Agricola came to push the conquests even further; he built a line of forts between the Forth and the Clyde to keep out the wild mountaineers of the north. Are you thinking of that deep wide valley as it is today, with coal and iron mines, factories and ports, fine farms, and thousands of workers?

Emperors came and went; you can see their faces in the portrait galleries, and may read their stories of where they stayed, and how they built walls to keep out the fierce Picts and Scots from Scotland and Ireland.

English memories of the time when the Romans ruled

The remains of the wall between the Solway and the Tyne are still to be seen; a railway runs in that direction now, and the name is preserved in "Wallsend" coal, found at the end of the Roman "vallum." Other Roman names still show where the "cæstra," or camps, were raised to house the soldiers at Chester, Lancaster, Leicester. A "colony" was settled in Lincoln, and many places are called Street, from their position on or near the great "strata," or roads. Stratford is an example of this.

The thousands of soldiers who came during these centuries from every part of the empire—the British lads were sent just as far away—left many remains on the soil of the country in which they worked so hard. Many of these remains are now in the great museums of the country, especially in the cities founded by the Romans—in London, York, Colchester, Winchester, and Bath. There are the altars they set up to their gods; their weapons and armor; the tablets to show long and faithful service, which gave them their discharge from the army; the memorial stones put up to honor their memories.

Many treasures of money and jewelry, perhaps buried in a hurry when danger arose, and never reclaimed,

have been found among the foundations of cities, along the line of the walls, and on the sites of the beautiful country villas. These were built in the sunniest and healthiest positions generally with a fine view among gardens with fountains and statues.

LONDON LIFE BENEATH THE CITY

We can picture the life in these villas, as we look at the fine pavements, the shoes of the ladies and children, the lamps, writing materials, mirrors, and other treasures found buried among their ruins. Some of the pottery and glass were made in Britain, for the Britons were quick to learn, but most of the finest came through London.

London rose to be an important city in Roman times. Some twenty feet below the pavements of the city of today, so thronged with busy feet, we find the remains of its greatness. The strong walls built for its protection ran, to some extent, on the lines of the Underground Railway. Many stations on that line have the word "gate" in their names—Aldgate, Moorgate, and so on, and from these gates in the walls started the great roads which passed over the country—something like the great main lines of railways at the present time—to connect the city with their stations at Lincoln, York, Chester, Bath, Chichester, and many others. Traders, therefore, found it a convenient spot to bring the goods they had for sale, especially as there was then and for many years after, a short cut for their ships from the Channel by the streams that made the Isle of Thanet really an island.

PIRATES FROM OVER THE SEA CAME TO ENGLAND IN BOATLOADS

Sometime, perhaps in the third century, Romans, as well as Britons, began to give up worshiping the gods of their fathers, and listened to the preaching of Christian missionaries; so there presently arose British churches and bishops. The country improved in many ways—more corn was grown, trade increased, and it seemed as if Roman law and order, and the liking for fine and comfortable lives had all come to stay.

But this was not to be. In Britain itself troubles thickened as the Picts and Scots became more and more daring, and pirates from over the sea landed on the east and south coasts. Year by year, as the spring came round, fresh boatloads landed on the most desirable spots they could find, and took by force whatever they needed. In other parts of the great empire troubles thickened too, as fierce tribes poured over its distant borders and made their way towards the beautiful and wonderful capital itself. The only thing to be done, as the empire grew weaker and weaker, was to give up the most distant provinces and recall the soldiers who held them to defend those nearer its mighty heart.

BRITONS LEFT TO RULE THEMSELVES AFTER ROMANS LOST THEIR POWER

So they had to leave the walls they had built, the cities and camps, with the theaters and baths, the castles—such as those at Richborough and Reculvers, which guarded the way to London when "Thanet was full isled." There must have been many a sad good-by, for often Romans had British wives and relations, and the departure of those who had helped to make the country so prosperous must have sown despair in the hearts of those left behind to cope with the difficulties and dangers as best they might. They had so long been taken care of that they had forgotten how to make plans for themselves and fight together.

Listen to a letter they sent to Rome, asking for soldiers to come back and help them; it is so sad that it is called

"the groans of the Britons." "The barbarians drive us to the sea; the sea drives us back to the barbarians. We are either slain or drowned." Many sad relics of this time are found in the caves, where families took refuge when their homes were destroyed. Thus it was that the light shed over Britain by the presence of the civilized Romans went out as the last boats carried away the last soldiers across the Channel.

The wild Picts and Scots burst over the now undefended wall, and burned what they could not carry away back to the hills; the sea-rovers, who had been coming year after year to settle and stay, came ever thicker and faster. They burned the villas and towns, destroyed the camps, starved London to death because trade was stopped, and provisions could no longer come in by the land and water-gates.

Once more Britons had to flee to the mountains in the west, and those who were left behind became the servants of the heathen newcomers, if they could not manage to stay on their farms as owners.

We want to find out all we can about these newcomers, for it is they who are the forefathers of the English race. Great changes have taken place, as many generations have been born, have lived and died, during the fifteen centuries between their time and ours. But still, as a race, we Anglo-Saxons keep up a family likeness, and in many ways take after our great-great-grandfathers. Many of us are as fair-haired and blue-eyed as they were; we love the sea and adventure, though in a quieter way, as much as they did. Half the words in our language—all the everyday words—come from the speech in which they shouted directions to each other as they shipped their oars and grounded their boats on these shores.

Besides all this, and much more, most of the laws, the ways of governing, the customs, have grown, through the centuries, from those they brought with them, together with the passionate love of freedom which is inherited from their old homes across the North Sea.

THE FOUNDING OF ENGLAND

There were long, cold winters on those flat and sandy shores round the southeast corner of the North Sea, from where the new-comers into England came. The meadows by the marshes, the dark woods behind them, could not afford enough food for the people who lived in the homesteads around; for, as time went on, more and more tribes of the same family of nations pushed nearer to the sea, till all were overcrowded.

So it came to pass each spring, "when the birds began to twitter in the sunshine, and the brooks and rivers ran gaily singing to the sea," that some of the youngest and strongest of the people set out to find new and more roomy homes.

Truly a desperate sight it must have been for the poor "guardian of the shore" in Kent or elsewhere, when the long, narrow boats, with imposing figureheads, came swiftly towards him. In most cases resistance was useless. The tall, strong men, with flowing hair and bronzed faces, glittering swords and shields, leaped ashore one after the other, and before long were masters of some desirable piece of land, if possible near the mouth of a river or in a sheltered bay. Then and there chiefs, such as Alfred or Clapa, or families like the Billings or the Harlings, set up their *ham*, or home, their *ton*, or town, as at Clapham and Alfreton, Billingham and Harlington. We can, by names such as these and

many others—such as *wick*, meaning a village; *staple*, a store—trace their settlements along the shore, up the courses of the rivers, and across the fertile plains. These names are still remembered and are written on the maps today.

The maps also show us, to some extent, where the different tribes of newcomers settled. Although they belonged to the same great family, they bore different names. The Jutes settled in the Isle of Wight and in Kent, which still keeps its name from an old British tribe. Branches of the Saxons, the South, East, and Middle Saxons, made their homes in Sussex, Essex, Middlesex. There was also Wessex of the West Saxons. The Angles took up their abode in East Anglia, the country of the North and South folk—Norfolk and Suffolk; and in Lincolnshire. It was the Angles who in the end gave their name to the whole country, which became Angleland, or England.

The settlement fighting went on for a long time, but gradually the families began to feel at home in their *hams* and their allotments—for which they really cast "lots." In the commons of today, so glorious with golden furze and old white-thorn trees, we can tread, as they did, the piece of land left open and "common" to those settled near it. They had "common rights," as people have now, to gather wood and bracken, and let their animals roam about.

EGBERT, THE FIRST OF THE FIFTY RULERS OF ENGLAND

For some years the country was divided up into several kingdoms, such as Kent, Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria. Often they were bitter enemies; but at last, at the beginning of the ninth century, they all acknowledged one overlord, Egbert. He has been called the first King of England. There have been more than fifty rulers since then.

The shires, or divisions into which the country is cut up, so that each part can govern its own affairs, were formed by degrees in these old times. The word *shire* comes from a word like *shears*, meaning to cut off. Sometimes the shire was one of the old kingdoms, or a part of one. Sometimes it was named after a town of importance, such as Derby-shire.

The family treasures, as one can see in the Anglo-Saxon Room at the British Museum, are dug up from all parts of these shires. In Lincolnshire a railway cutting goes right through a large cemetery. On the breezy downs of the Isle of Wight many warriors were laid to rest, with their weapons and ornaments beside them. Numbers come from Kent. How beautiful those swords and knives must have looked when they were new and bright! It was the mother who gave the weapons to the boy when the time came for him to follow his father to battle or the chase, bidding him keep them till death took them from him.

THE JEWELS OF MOTHERS, NAMES OF CHILDREN, AND HYMNS OF PREACHERS

Those fine necklaces, brooches, rings, gold thread and precious stones from old embroidery, bring to mind those English mothers of long ago. One of them, in an old story told round the hearth, as we tell stories now, earned the title of "faithful peace-weaver." Could anything be better? The beautiful drinking-horns and glasses without stands carry us to the halls where the families rejoiced. The names of the children who wore those small bracelets may well have been Edith or Ethel, for these names, as well as the boys' names of Edgar, Edwin, and Edward, have come down from these times.

ST. AUGUSTINE INTRODUCING CHRISTIANITY TO ETHELBERT, KING OF ENGLAND

ST. AUGUSTINE BAPTIZING THE EARLY ENGLISH

The English people knew nothing about Christianity until long after Christ was born. About the year 600 A.D. a monk, struck by the sad sight of some English boys being sold for slaves in the market-place of Rome, set himself to think out a plan for sending the news of Christianity into the boys' country. He became Pope Gregory the Great, and there are still to be seen in Rome the steps from which he sent Augustine to preach Christianity to the English.

The sculptured stone cross reminds us that missionaries came over from Ireland to preach to the wild north; others came from Rome to the south to persuade men to give up the gods of their forefathers and become Christians. There was a long, fierce struggle before they succeeded. Woden the god of war; Thor, the god of thunder; Freya, the goddess of peace and plenty, are still recalled, as we speak of Wednes-day, Thurs-day, Fri-day.

A fine cross has been put up near Minster, in the Isle of Thanet, to mark the spot where Augustine, the Roman missionary, landed towards the end of the sixth century. Headed by a painted cross and waving banners, he and his clergy set out for Canterbury from here, chanting hymns and prayers as they went. This stone cross is copied from the old ones, some much larger than the one in the museum, set up in Ireland and the north by the missionaries of old to remind their hearers of the Gospel story after they had passed away. Many of these are still to be seen.

EDWIN, THE GREAT KING WHO FOUNDED EDINBURGH, OR EDWIN'S TOWN

The pillow-stones, which were found under the heads of nuns, make one think of the numbers of women, as well as men, who were often thankful to retire, in those rough times, to the quiet of a religious house, to read and write, to think and pray.

Edwin was one of the greatest of the first Christian kings. It was he who founded Edinburgh—Edwin's "burgh," or town. He needed a strong fort to protect the fertile lands to the south of the Forth—the Lothians of today—and to hold the roads from the north. The castle rock between the hills and the sea gave the needed protection to the town which grew up round its base.

About this time arose the first English poet, from a religious house or monastery on the cliffs above Whitby, in Yorkshire, to which he had retired when his great gift of song was discovered.

On the same coast, a little further north, where now is heard the great noise of iron shipbuilding, there lived and died the great scholar and writer Bede, often called the Venerable Bede. He spent his whole life learning and teaching, and translating and writing books for the pupils who gathered round him. His chief work, perhaps, is the history of the Church of the country, which has gained him the title of the first English historian.

THE BOOK OF THE OLD SCHOLAR, BED E AND THE STORY IT TELLS

There is still a copy of Bede's book to be seen, written in Latin, in one of the cases in the British Museum which contains the manuscripts of earliest English history. Bede's book is open at the page which tells the old story of how Augustine came to be sent to preach to the English. The handsome, fair, blue-eyed boys, being sold for slaves in the market at Rome, attracted the pity of a young monk, afterwards Pope Gregory. He made a joke on their name when it was told him. "Not Angles, but Angels," he said, "they are so beautiful." As soon as he had the power he sent Augustine and a band of missionaries to carry Christianity into the boys' country.

Many another story does Bede tell. He sent all over the country to gather all the information he could, and as one reads the account of his gentle ways and his hard work to the very end of his life, one feels a great love for the saintly man.

But once more dark and bitter times fell upon the land, and learning and peace were again destroyed. Hardly had Egbert of Wessex made himself overlord of the country from the Forth

to the Channel, at the beginning of the ninth century, when sea-rovers poured into it.

How the furious Danes came down upon England

They were even more fierce and wild than the English tribes had been three centuries before. They, too, came in fine boats, often blazing with color, sometimes black as night, with high, carved figureheads, and the dreaded Raven banner at the mast. They came across the North Sea, like the Jutes, and Saxons, and Angles. Their homes were in the lowlands of Denmark, in Sweden, and along the jagged coast of Norway. All were of the same stock—Danes; North, or Norse, men; Vikings, or men of the creeks. "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord deliver us!" was the prayer of the Christians they attacked. All the Northmen particularly hated and despised the religion which had taken the place of the old one to which they fiercely clung. So over the stricken land flames went up from the monasteries and churches, and those who had sought refuge in them were slain. Caedmon's haven of rest at Whitby was not spared, nor Bede's at Yarrow, nor the beautiful abbey on the little island of Lindisfarne, where Columba and Aidan, missionaries from the West, had lived. London was burned, and the whole country plundered.

In the midst of all this, towards the end of the ninth century, there uprose one of the noblest of the English kings, Alfred the Great, the Truth-teller, the Wise. His titles and the very stories about his good nature, bravery, and industry which have been handed down to our times show how beloved he was by his subjects—a thousand years ago. When he first became king the Danes were quiet for awhile, and he made good use of this peaceful time to build ships to prevent the sea-rovers landing. This was the beginning of the English Navy. He also did his best to get the country into order, and soldiers trained to fight.

The story of the troubled life of King Alfred the Great

For a time after the return of the Danes things went against Alfred, and he had to hide. He hid one day in a swineherd's cottage where the swineherd's wife was making cakes. Not knowing the king, she let him sit by the hearth mending his bow and arrow if he would promise to see that the cakes did not burn while she was out. By the blazing red fire on the hearth sat the young king, deep in anxious thought—so deep in thought that he did not notice the strong smell of the cakes as they burned to cinders. It was rather provoking for the housewife, and, not knowing to whom she was speaking, she scolded the king severely for letting her cakes burn.

Another story is of his venturing alone, disguised as a singer, into the Danish camp night after night, to find out their plans. Soon after this he won a great victory, and the treaty or arrangements which followed gave peace for many years. In his wisdom he saw that the country would be ruined unless fighting could be stopped; and though he was quite a young man, he gave up any hopes he may well have had of getting all the country for himself, and arranged to share it with the Danes. The part which the Danes had was called the Dane law, because there the people lived under Danish, not Saxon, laws. Part of the boundary was the old Roman road which ran through London to Chester, called Watling Street.

How Alfred helped the people to make the nation great

It was not long before Alfred made his half kingdom stronger than the

ALFRED APPEALING TO THE PEOPLE TO DRIVE THE DANES OUT OF ENGLAND

THE ANGRY HOUSEWIFE SCOLDING THE UNKNOWN KING FOR LETTING HER CAKES BURN

In the midst of the misery and trouble of the English people caused by the fighting Danes, there rose one of the noblest of English kings, Alfred the Great. But he had a troubled life, and at times had to hide from his enemies, once in a swineherd's cottage. The housewife let him mend his bow by the fire if he would promise to see that her cakes did not burn. But Alfred was too deep in thought to notice the cakes, and was scolded severely by the housewife, not knowing to whom she was speaking, when she came back to find them like cinders

HOW SALISBURY LIES IN THE PLAIN—WHERE THE CONQUEROR ASSEMBLED HIS BARONS

THE ROAD INTO DORCHESTER, THE SCENE OF TWO THOUSAND YEARS OF ENGLISH HISTORY

HOW WINCHESTER LIES IN THE HILLS—THE CAPITAL OF ALFRED'S ENGLAND

whole one had been before his time. He improved his army and built up forts. Then he turned his mind to making good laws with the advice of the assembly of wise men who helped him to rule the country, somewhat in the way that Parliament helps England's sovereigns to rule now. Next he did all he could to teach his people. Since the Danes had destroyed the monasteries there was great ignorance everywhere, for the monasteries had been really schools in which people learned to read and write English and Latin, which was so necessary in those times.

So Alfred called together learned men from other countries—they all understood Latin—and they wrote and translated and taught as hard as they could. Alfred himself worked with them. In his youth his mother had given him a beautiful book as a prize for learning to read quickly, and he continued to study all his life. Some think that it was he who started the first history of England in English, called the Anglo-Saxon or English Chronicle. There is a copy of it in the British Museum, where there is also a famous jewel, with the words written on it "Alfred had me made." He had all the information collected that could be found about older times than his, and then added the story of his reign.

ENGLAND AFTER ALFRED'S DEATH, AND THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY

After his death more was added to this, giving the history of the years as they passed for nearly three centuries. Alfred's work was carried on by his son and a brave daughter and three grandsons, and for a time it seemed as if the Danes were going to settle down as a part of the English nation without further trouble. We can today see on the map where they settled by the place-names. Where the English said *tun* or *ton* for town, the Danes said *by*, and so is derived Whitby, Derby, and Appleby. Many other parts of names are Danish too, such as *toft*, meaning an enclosure, as in Lowestoft; *scar*, a cliff, as in Scarborough. The long Danish swords in the Anglo-Saxon Room at the British Museum remind one of the way in which they swung them around in battle; and the combs recall the flowing hair for which they were so famous.

In a corner of the Anglo-Saxon Room are also relics which take us across the Irish Channel, to the land of those missionaries preaching in the North of England. As we have already seen, when Christianity was preached to the Britons in the time of the Romans, the new faith spread to Ireland, and flourished there exceedingly when the heathen Angles and Saxons had stamped it out in Britain. Churches and monasteries were built everywhere—as the number of beautiful ruins in Ireland testify to this day—and many people crowded into the only refuges there were in those rough times.

THE PATIENT WORK OF THE MONKS AND THE MISSIONARIES

The country was divided into separate kingdoms, as it was in England before Egbert. Fierce fighting went on among them for many a day. What a contrast there is between this state of things and the peace of the monasteries, in which were gathered learned men from all parts! The fame of the beautifully painted manuscripts from these monasteries spread abroad, and other arts that filled up the long days were working in metal and ivory and stone.

The missionaries who poured over the narrow straits near the Giant's Causeway, as the wild tribes of the Scots had done before them, found as beautiful a country as the one they had

left in the Western Highlands, but it was wild and waste land they had often to pass over in Northumbria.

You will remember that Roman Britain stretched as far north as Agricola's forts between the firths of the Forth and Clyde, and that later the kingdom of Northumbria, under Edwin, the founder of Edinburgh, also reached as far. The tribes that for long had fought together north of this were united at last under a king called Kenneth, in the first part of the tenth century.

Scotland, too, in Kenneth's time, suffered much from the Northmen, who poured out of their creeks or firths of Scotland. Right round the coast they went, taking the Shetlands, the Orkneys, and Hebrides, the rocky head of Scotland north of Glenmore, on their way down to the Isle of Man. Many traces of their rule still remain.

EDGAR THE PEACEFUL KING, ETHELRED, THE UNREADY, AND CANUTE THE DANE

The name of Edgar stands out in the same century as Kenneth's. He was called the Peaceful King, which shows that he lived on good terms with his neighbors, even if the story is not true about six kings rowing him on the River Dee.

In the time of his son, Ethelred, called the Unready, because he would take no man's "rede," or counsel, fresh bands of Danes appeared in England. Ethelred, at his wits' end, paid them money to go away, which they did; but they soon came back again for more. Matters became worse and worse, and so Ethelred fled away over the Channel to Normandy to his wife's relations. And so Canute, the Danish king, who also ruled Norway, added England to his empire.

Canute was a good king in the end, and the country settled down for a time in peace. It was he who gave up to the Scottish king the land between the Forth and the Cheviots. For many centuries these hills remained the border between the two countries, with a wide road on the east by Berwick-on-Tweed, and a narrow one on the west by the marshy ground near Carlisle. Along these roads the east and west railway routes to the north pass today.

THE SMALL BEGINNINGS OF NORMAN INFLUENCE IN ENGLAND

Now when bands of Northmen were plundering and wasting England and Scotland, others went to the northern shores of what is now France, then the land of the Franks—formerly Cæsar's Gaul—and settled there in the reign of Alfred. They gained the whole of the beautiful province called after them—Normandy, the land of the Northmen. They very soon left off speaking their own language, and learned that of the Franks, which is called Norman-French.

These men were bold and fierce, and they determined to take and keep all that came in their way. Their rulers were called dukes. Emma, the wife of Ethelred the Unready, was the daughter, of one called Richard the Fearless. Her son, Edward, was brought up in Normandy, after the family fled from England on account of the Danes, and as he grew up in a monastery he cared more for a quiet, learned life, and for attending services in church, than for fighting or looking after business.

So when the English had had enough of Danish kings—there were only three of them—and Edward was called back to be king, he was not at all fitted to take part in the stirring, anxious times in his fatherland, and caused much discontent by favoring the Normans he brought with him.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR, THE GENTLE KING WHO BUILT WESTMINSTER ABBEY

An English nobleman, Earl Godwin, kept him for a time in some measure

THE INVASION OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

THE FIRST MEETING OF HAROLD AND DUKE WILLIAM OF NORMANDY

HAROLD PROMISES THE CROWN TO WILLIAM, SWEARING TO BE TRUE TO HIM

THE CROWNING OF HAROLD AS KING, AFTER THE DEATH OF EDWARD THE CONFESSOR

DUKE WILLIAM OF NORMANDY, WHILE HUNTING, RECEIVES NEWS OF HAROLD'S CORONATION

When Edward the Confessor died, in January, 1066, and was buried in the beautiful Westminster Abbey which he built, Harold was chosen King of England. When Duke William of Normandy heard this, as he was hunting at Rouen, he was angry, and said that both Edward and Harold had promised him the kingdom—which nobody could really promise, because it was the people's right to choose their king. William went over to England with an army and a fleet, and a great battle was fought at Hastings, where Harold was killed and the bravest men of England fell around him. William had conquered, and from that day began new times for England.

to his duty. Edward's greatest pleasure was in building churches, and the most beautiful one of all was that of the Abbey at Westminster, built after the pattern of those he knew and loved so well in Normandy, with rounded windows and arches. This abbey church at Westminster has been entirely rebuilt by later kings.

It is said that Edward promised his cousin, William of Normandy, that he should be King of England at his death; in any case William determined that King of England he would be. The gentle, white-haired, rosy-faced king—the Confessor, as he was afterwards called—died in January, 1066. He was buried in his fine new church, finished only a few days before. Later a beautiful tomb was raised over him, which one can see today in its present place in the heart of the Abbey.

Now the year 1066, which opened with the king's death was an important year for England, full of stirring history. The day after the weeping people had crowded the Abbey to see the funeral of Edward, they came back again to crown the successor whom they had chosen—Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, whom they knew to be brave and wise, and a hater of the Normans.

And so, on that bright sunny day, in the keen north wind of January, the roof rang again with joyful shouts of "Yea!" when the old archbishop asked if they would have Harold for king.

William of Normandy Comes to England in a Furious Temper

When William heard that Harold had become king after Edward, he was furious, and at once set to work to get an army and a fleet together to invade England and secure the crown he longed for. He said Harold had promised him the kingdom as well as Edward; but no one could really promise this, because it was the people's right to choose whom they would have.

When William landed near Hastings, on the south coast, in the bright September weather, Harold was at York. He marched his army down south by the great Roman road to London in nine days, which was quick time, when so many had to go on foot.

The battle that followed at Hastings is one of the great battles of history. The Normans were led out by a singer on a fine prancing horse, and the whole army caught up his song about the great hero of France and how he fought and won. The English did their best, but the Normans were too strong for them. Harold was killed, and the bravest and best men of England fell fighting around him. This was on Saturday, October 15th, 1066.

The Lonely Crowning of William the Conqueror

By December William had forced the people of the south to own him as king, and he was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day. No shouts of welcome, no bright faces, and when the question was asked, "Do you take William of Normandy to be your king?" there was but a sullen mutter; they had to say "Yes." William was almost alone on this great day.

Freedom for England was gone. The knights were killed, the poor were in utter misery. William gave much land and goods to his Norman followers, and, instead of paying rent in money, they had to promise to supply him with fighting men when he went to war. They made the men to whom they let land promise to do the same.

This feudal system, as it was called, lasted for many years in England. So that there should be no doubt how

much land everyone had, and how many soldiers it was worth William had a great book prepared, Domesday Book, in which is a description of all the great houses and estates in the kingdom. That book is still of great use.

THE WORK THAT THE CONQUEROR DID FOR ENGLAND

Another work of William's which lasts to this day was the making of the New Forest, in Hampshire. William made it to hunt in, and sorely distressed the poor folk who were turned out of their homes for his pleasure.

Some of the great castles William built to keep the English in order are still standing. Chief among them is the old part of the Tower of London, in which is a most perfect Norman chapel. It is said that from the gallery of this chapel William the Conqueror and his family looked down on the service going on below.

William spent a good deal of his time in Normandy, and at last died there. His sons behaved very unfilial to him, and he was alone in his death as he was at his coronation, when all but a few priests rushed out to join in the tumult going on outside Westminister Abbey.

After the death of the Conqueror there was still fighting for the crown. He was succeeded by his son William Rufus who in turn was succeeded by Henry I and Henry II.

FIGHTING FOR THE CROWN

WHEN Prince Edward left England, and his old father, Henry III, to go and fight in the Crusade, his young wife Eleanor, pleaded to go with him. It was in vain that he told her how dangerous the journey was; she only answered that "the way to heaven is as near from Palestine as from England." So the Princess Eleanor had her way; and the story goes that she was able to save her husband's life.

It was Edward who prepared the splendid double tomb of marble for his father, once sparkling with gold and jewels, but now so dusty and gray, close by Edward the Confessor's shrine in Westminster Abbey. He also carried on his father's work by pulling down more of the old Norman Abbey, and building it up again in the new style. Edward made many good laws, and arranged different courts to deal with the various matters of government. Early in his reign he had bitter fighting with the Welsh. The Britons, had found shelter long before among the beautiful hills in the west from both Romans and Saxons; and their children's children defied all attempts to join their land to England.

The English lords who lived on the borderland had great difficulty in preventing the Welsh from carrying off their possessions, and followed them when they could, back to their hills to punish them.

But Edward was wise and determined, and in the end succeeded in becoming master of the country, so that at last he was able to hang up before the shrine of his namesake, Edward the Confessor, the crown of Llewellyn, the last Welsh prince.

When the nobles came to pay homage to Edward, he promised to give them a prince as ruler, born in Wales, who could neither speak French nor English. He then brought out his little son, born at Carnarvon Castle a few days before! Ever since, the king's eldest son has been Prince of Wales.

HOW EDWARD THE FIRST TRIED TO UNITE ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

Edward's great wish was to rule over the whole island of Great Britain, as it had been that of Henry II, before

him. He wanted the Scottish king to do homage for all his kingdom, but the Scottish steadily refused.

To try to make the kingdoms one by peaceful means, Edward proposed to marry his son to the Maid of Norway, whose mother was the daughter of a Scotch king. But the little girl, Margaret, the last of her family, died on her way across the stormy North Sea. If she had lived, it might have saved much misery during the years that followed, when Scotland was helped by France to resist England, and war was going on in one of the three countries.

Disputes soon arose as to who should rule in Scotland after Margaret died, and Edward claimed the right of settling them. Naturally, the Scotch did not agree to this, and fought hard to get their own way. In the course of ten years Edward made three conquests in Scotland. Many of the battles were fought near that narrow part of Scotland between the Forth and Clyde.

THE QUEEN FROM NORWAY WHOSE MONUMENT STANDS AT CHARING CROSS

The same year that the Maid of Norway died, Edward lost his beloved queen Eleanor. To mark his grief, and the honor in which he held her, he built crosses wherever her body rested on its way from Nottinghamshire to Westminster Abbey. Green fields and a few country houses were its surroundings then; now it lies in the midst of London, where myriads of hurrying feet pass to and fro by the great railway station at Charing Cross. Edward raised a beautiful tomb for his queen at his father's feet. His own, on the other side of his father, is a large, plain one.

A few feet from where he lies is the ancient coronation chair made by him to enclose the famous stone that he brought from Scotland, on which the kings of that country had been crowned for centuries. Edward's chair was painted and decorated with false jewels when new. Now it looks dull and worn, but is covered with cloth-of-gold when moved out before the altar for a sovereign of England to be crowned in it. Round the stone run these words, engraved upon it:

> If fates go right, where'er this stone is found,
> The Scots shall monarchs of that realm be crowned.

We shall see later how and when these words came true, but it was not till Edward I had laid down his sword for three hundred years.

ROBERT BRUCE, THE HERO-KING OF SCOTLAND, AND THE GREAT FIGHT HE WON

The chief battle in the reign of the son of Edward I was fought at Bannockburn, within sight of Stirling. It was a wonderful day. Robert Bruce, the hero-king of Scotland, rode up and down on his brown pony—a battle-axe in his hand, a gold crown on his head—encouraging his soldiers, whom he had arranged in the best possible way. Robert had not half as many men as Edward, but before night fell the Scotch were free again; and Edward II left so much treasure behind that the Scotch became rich as well as free in one day.

Edward II ruled so badly that he was made to give up the crown, and his son of fourteen was chosen king in his place. He was Edward III.

A great deal happened during the fifty years of his reign. He began by marrying Philippa when only fifteen.

Her husband was away a great deal, for wars with Scotland and France were incessant. He invaded Scotland again and again, and succeeded to a certain extent, till France helped the Scots. Then troubles broke out in that country, as Edward claimed to be the rightful king of France.

THE GREAT BATTLE AT CRESSY, WHERE GUNPOWDER WAS FIRST USED

Later followed the great battle of Cressy, in France, fought amid thunder and lightning, torrents of rain, and an eclipse of the sun. It is said that the English had four cannon with them, and that this was the first time gunpowder was used in battle. The arrows of the English fell fast and thick; the men who came to help the French fell back, and soon all was in confusion. Edward's eldest son—barely sixteen—led in the fight, and won the spurs of a knight that day.

Perhaps you know the three feathers, with the German motto below, "I serve," used as a crest by the Prince of Wales? It was this "Black Prince," so called from the color of his armor, who took this crest to put on his shield at the battle of Cressy. It had belonged to the brave and blind old King of Bohemia, who cried, "I pray and beseech you to lead me so far into the fight that I may strike one good blow with this sword of mine." He was found dead on the field.

HOW QUEEN PHILIPPA SAVED THE SIX BRAVE MEN OF CALAIS

Then for nearly a year Edward tried to take the town of Calais. Kent has been called the window which looks out on Europe; and Calais has been called the door into France. Little wooden houses were built all round the town for the soldiers, and no one could pass food through. At last the people were starving, and had to give in to the English.

Edward said that six of the men of Calais must come and give their lives, and then he would let the rest go free. So one after another brave man offered to go, and the six came to Edward with ropes round their necks. Edward would not listen at first when asked to spare them, but shouted, "Call the headsman! They of Calais have made so many of my men die that they must die themselves."

Then Queen Philippa herself knelt before the angry king, and with tears raining down her face, said to him, "Ah, gentle sire, from the day I passed over sea in great danger I have asked you nothing. Now I pray and beseech you with folded hands, for the love of Christ to have mercy on them."

The king kept silence for awhile, then his heart softened, and he put the ropes of the six citizens into her hands. How happy Philippa must have been, as she cared for them before they went away!

THE MISERY OF THE PEOPLE AND THE HONOR OF A CAPTIVE KING

But the unhappy war went on. Hundreds of soldiers crossed the Channel, to die away from home. Presently it became difficult to find enough men to till the fields, and there was a great deal of poverty and discontent everywhere. A terrible sickness, too, called the Black Death, swept over the country, till nearly half the people died. The rich people did all they could to keep wages low.

The state of France was just as miserable, with land uncultivated and towns in ruins, for people were driven away from their homes, and many of their goods were taken by English soldiers.

After the next great battle, Poitiers, the Black Prince, took the French king prisoner. The story is told that the captive was mounted on a fine white horse, while the prince rode beside him on a pony, and that he stood respectfully behind his chair at table.

The king went home to try to collect the enormous sum asked for his ransom, and, being unsuccessful, came back, for he was an honorable man, to end his days in England.

CHAUCER, THE GREAT POET, AND WYCLIF, THE GREAT REFORMER

The father of English poetry—Chaucer—lived in Edward's reign and that of his successor. You can see his tomb in Poet's Corner in the Abbey. His English is difficult to read, because the language has changed so much since those days.

The great reformer Wyclif lived also in the fourteenth century. He has been called the first Protestant, because he dared to protest or speak against what he believed to be wrong. He directed the translation of the whole Bible into English.

You can see this "first complete Bible in the English language" among the manuscripts of the Bible in the British Museum, and you will notice that it belonged to Thomas, the youngest son of Edward III. He was the only one of all their children, says Froissart, who was present when Philippa died. Holding the king's hand in hers, she told him her last wishes, asking that "when it should please God to call you hence, you will not choose any other grave than mine, and that you will lie beside me in the Abbey of Westminster." So there they lie, near the Confessor's shrine, Philippa's tomb opposite that of Eleanor, her husband's opposite that of Henry III.

THE TROUBLED LAND IN WHICH A CHILD WAS KING

Round Edward's tomb were little statues of his twelve children, but only six are left. From those of the Black Prince and Lionel Duke of Clarence we can gather the ordinary costume of gentlemen of that day. They wore long, outside cloaks, and tight-fitting jackets with belts beneath. It was Lionel who was sent to Ireland to try to bring more of the country under English rule, but he met with but little success. English laws and customs were to be set up round about Dublin, in a district called the English Pale, but beyond that the Irish were to be left to themselves.

The son of the Black Prince, Richard II, followed his grandfather. He was only ten when he came to the throne, and an old poem describing the times quotes the words with sorrow, "Woe to the land when the king is a child."

The great nobles, especially the king's uncles, were always quarreling, and the peasants who worked on the land could bear their poverty and hardships no longer, but at last broke into open revolt, marching to London, breaking into parks, and burning and sacking houses.

RICHARD, THE BOY KING, WHO PLACED HIMSELF AT THE HEAD OF THE MOB

Richard, when a boy of fifteen, showed great courage in meeting a mob of rioters, and placed himself at their head when the leader, Wat Tyler, was struck down. Springing to the front, he cried, "I will be your leader!" But the promises he gave were broken, and the poor folk were none the better off.

Richard did a great deal towards making Ireland more peaceful, but the improvement did not last. He made his own people angry by trying to govern without parliament, and at last, after many troubles, he was forced to resign his crown, as Edward II had done before him.

A distant cousin became king after him—Henry IV. As Henry IV had no real right to the throne, he was constantly in dread of losing it, and found it difficult to keep order in England and Wales. Scotland was afraid to do much against him, because their prince James—afterwards James I—was a prisoner in England.

When this boy James was about nine years old, his father sent him to France to be educated, and to be out of harm's way. His ship fell into the hands of

Henry IV, who said, "His father should have sent him to me. I can teach him French as well as the King of France."

Prince Hal, who won a great battle at Agincourt

All the years that the boy spent in England he used for study. As soon as he became king, his great ambition showed itself; he wanted to be King of France as well as of England. He had no right to be so, but gathered a large force and crossed the Channel, and in the face of great difficulties won a victory at Agincourt.

How Henry died and a baby king was crowned with a bracelet

But all Henry's plans came to a sudden end. He was a good soldier, was wise, and seemed born to do great things; but he died when only thirty-five, leaving a little son of nine months as his heir. He was crowned on his mother's lap, with her bracelet, it is said, as a crown for his baby head.

Henry died near Paris, a long way from the coast, and the funeral procession went by Rouen at a slow pace in great state, Katherine, a widow at twenty-one, following in deep grief.

The brave girl with a white banner, who was burned to death

Henry VI had a long reign. First his uncles governed for him, and during this time the English lost what hold they had on France. This was chiefly through the efforts of a young French girl, called Joan of Arc, who was bitterly sorry for the miseries of her country, and longed to drive the English out, and to see her own king upon his throne. So she dressed herself in shining armor, and rode at the head of an army, with a great white banner, cheering on the soldiers. At last she succeeded in leading them to victory. She was afterwards betrayed into the hands of the English, who burned her to death.

The Wars of the Roses now began, and lasted for thirty years. The eleven battles which took place during this time were fought between the king and the nobles, up and down the country—near London, on the line of the old Roman wall, in the dales of Yorkshire; and all brought woe and suffering to the country. These wars were called the Wars of the Roses because those on the side of Henry VI and the Family of Lancaster chose a red rose for their badge, and those who were for the House of York chose a white one.

The end of the great war for the crown of England

In the end, nearly all the great nobles who had begun the war were killed, either in battle or by execution, as first one side and then the other gained the upper hand. At last Henry VI died miserably in the Tower.

Henry was too weak to control others and to govern in such troubled times, but he was fond of scholars and teachers and books and pictures of all kinds. He founded the great school at Eton, and King's College at Cambridge. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, did her best to help him keep the kingdom, so that their son might have it after him; but the poor lad was killed, and the queen, after being in prison for some time, had to escape from the country and flee to France.

The wife of Edward IV had many sorrows, too. At one time her husband had to leave England in great haste to avoid being taken by the Red Rose party, and she and her daughters had to leave the Tower, where they were living, and go to a safe refuge at Westminster. Here her eldest son was born.

When Edward IV died, his son of thirteen was the next king, but the boy was never crowned, being hurried off to the Tower by his uncle Richard, who soon managed to get his little

brother into his power, too. They both disappeared—it is believed that Richard had them killed in the Tower.

How the King Shocked the People and United the Nobles

He now became king himself, as Richard III and tried to please the people by calling Parliament together. He also did a good deal for trade and to make it easy for people to produce books. But all were so horrified at the death of the little princes that they turned against him, and in the battle of Bosworth Field, which followed, Richard was killed, and Henry Tudor, of the family of Lancaster, was made king, as Henry VII.

He married the eldest daugnter of Edward IV, and so the two Houses of York and Lancaster were united at last, the red and white roses mingling in one double flower, the Tudor rose.

THE AGE OF PAGEANTRY

WE now seem to pass into a new England. The lilies of France and the lions of England remind us of the long connection and long struggles of the two countries. The crown on a bush recalls the story of Henry's hasty coronation on the battlefield of Bosworth, where Richard died in the thickest of the fight, and his crown was found hanging on a hawthorn tree. The Tudor roses are everywhere, formed of red and white roses, badges of the two parties in the long civil wars. The old feudal barons, who used to sally forth from castles shut in by moats and gates to put themselves at the head of their knights and servants, were nearly all killed off in battle during the Wars of the Roses.

The nobles who rose in their stead built themselves open country houses, surrounded by parks and gardens which are still among the chief beauties of England.

The old barons, though some were bad and violent, had done a great work for their country. It was they who wrung from the kings charter after charter, promising justice, good laws, and just government for the people.

It was they, too, who insisted on the kings calling Parliaments to make the laws, and to decide what money should be paid in taxes, and how it should be spent.

The Tudor Kings Who Stopped the Growth of Freedom

When the order of strong old nobles was laid low, the new ones owed so much to the Tudor kings that they did not dare to resist them at first, and, as the character of this family was strong and determined, the growth of freedom was stopped for many years.

Henry VII, was grasping about money; he needed it badly, and made people angry and discontented by the way he forced it from them. He had a hard task to set England straight and to keep it at peace. He saw that nothing could improve if other wars were undertaken. So he tried to quiet Scotland and Spain by marrying his children into their royal families. He little thought how far-reaching the results of these marriages would be. His daughter Margaret, named after her grandmother, was married to James IV, of Scotland, and his eldest son, who died young, to a Spanish princess, Catherine of Aragon.

The Stream of Soldiers, Sailors, and Scholars That Came into England

The coming of the Normans brought a never-ending stream of soldiers and traders, teachers and scholars, constantly crossing and recrossing the Channel. The views gained through them of the continent beyond were ever made larger and clearer, as the

MORRIS DANCERS, STRATFORD-ON-AVON

The morris is one of the oldest English dances, reminiscent of the days of Robin Hood and his merry men. The dance is distinct from the Mummers' Play, though the same rustic performers may undertake both dance and masque.

READING THE LAWS, ISLE OF MAN

Tynwald Hill is an artificial mound of earth, about two-and-a-half miles from Peel. There the Deemsters read the laws, first in Manx, then in English, and no law is of force in the island till it has been read from Tynwald Hill.

Crusaders pressed on to the East, armies spread all over France, and trade steadily increased.

Henry VIII gives up his wife and his great counselor Wolsey

When Henry VIII, became tired of Catherine of Aragon, he wanted the Pope to say that she was not really his wife, because she had been his brother's wife first. This the Pope refused to say, and at last Henry made up his mind not to consider the Pope as the head of the Church any longer, but made Parliament declare himself to be the head, so that he could do as he liked. But Wolsey was against his marrying Anne Boleyn. Henry, in anger, took Wolsey's high offices from him, and he died in sorrow and disgrace. Shakespeare has written of him in a great play, and has reminded us that some of Wolsey's last words are said to have been these: "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

Thomas Cromwell was the next favorite of the king, and for ten years helped Henry to sweep away the old freedom of the country. People were made to pay taxes as the king and Cromwell chose; these two made what laws they pleased, and imprisoned anyone they wished; they even beheaded some of the noblest of the land who dared to oppose them.

How Sir Thomas More went to his doom in the Tower

Sir Thomas More was one of the greatest Englishmen of the day, and for a time a close friend of the king. Henry used to walk with him in his garden by the riverside at Chelsea. Other friends loved to visit him there, too, and talk of the new learning and of the book More had written, trying to show how best to help the country and teach the people. But there came a time when he could no longer walk familiarly with the king; he felt it impossible to say that he thought it right that he should have married Anne Boleyn. So he was sent his way to the Tower where he was beheaded.

The monasteries that sheltered the scholars in stormy times

Besides teaching those who wished to learn, they entertained travelers and looked after the poor. But because some of the monks were lazy and bad, this was made an excuse to shut up all their houses and take away the estates and other property that belonged to them. Henry gave some of this wealth to his friends; some was spent in founding new bishoprics; some went to build schools and colleges and ships.

In the midst of all this scene of change, Henry's son, Edward, was born at Hampton Court, the beautiful palace which once belonged to Wolsey. Edward's mother, Jane Seymour, died soon after he was born. After this Thomas Cromwell displeased Henry, and was sent to prison and beheaded. Great efforts were made in the time of Henry VIII, to subdue the rebellious lords in Ireland and to make the people obey English laws, and even alter their customs and religion to order. This they hated doing, and discontent smouldered on in the island.

Edward succeeded his father when he was nine, being crowned by Archbishop Cranmer, who arranged the Book of Common Prayer much in the same order as it is today.

As Edward was too young to govern by himself, the affairs of the country were managed by his guardians. There was much distress in the country, for the people had not enough work, and they missed the help they had had from the monasteries. Much more of the land was now used for grazing sheep, as the new owners wanted to get rich by selling the wool. When the

THE TOWER OF LONDON

land was tilled, many more people could find work. Another trouble was that the new landlords enclosed some of the old commons, where the people had had rights ever since the days of the Saxons. They felt this terribly, and in many places there were riots.

THE FIRST BLUECOAT BOYS WHO WALKED THE STREETS OF ENGLAND

The Bluecoat School was founded by Edward VI, and many other schools all over the country. The long coats, bands, and yellow stockings were the ordinary boy's dress in this reign. Edward's health became worse and worse. When the ships of Willoughby and Chancellor were towed down the Thames on their way to open up trade with Russia at Archangel, the courtiers rushed out of the palace at Greenwich to see them pass and to receive the salutes of the sailors in "sky-colored cloth."

Edward heard the cannon from his bed, and when Chancellor returned it was his sister Mary who received him and his sailors as Queen of England.

TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON
This is one of the most conspicuous squares in London. (Nelson monument in the center.)

THE SAD FIGURE OF LADY JANE GREY, AND THE COMING OF MARY

Edward had been persuaded to make a will leaving the kingdom to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, who was a Protestant. The rightful heir, Mary, clung earnestly to the old ways. Poor Jane had no wish to be queen; she was forced into it. Her short reign was passed in the Tower, where she and her young husband were afterwards beheaded.

Mary's girlhood had been sad and lonely, and after she became queen she had the sorrow of being married to a husband, Philip of Spain, whom she loved, but who cared nothing for her. He spent but little time in the country, but could persuade Mary to do anything he pleased. Together they did all they could to stop the progress of the Reformation and to bring England back again under the power of the Pope.

How the English Parliament Knelt Down to be Pardoned by the Pope

Mary's cousin, Reginald Pole, in the red dress and hat of a cardinal, was sent by the Pope to receive submission of England. The whole Parliament at Westminster knelt down to receive from him the Pope's pardon for what had happened in the reigns of Henry VIII, and his son.

Numbers of men and women, and even the Archbishop Cranmer himself, were burned to death because they dared to keep to what they believed to be right in religion, and refused to change at the bidding of those in power.

In the midst of all this misery England lost Calais, called then "the brightest jewel in the English Crown." It was the last of the British possessions in France, and the loss was a heavy blow to the country and to Mary, who died soon afterwards.

Queen Elizabeth, who Loved Fine Clothes and Fine Learning

What grand clothes, huge sleeves, and uncomfortable upstanding ruffs Queen Elizabeth wore! What a wealth of blazing jewels, chains, and ornaments! What a hair-dressing! One can well believe the stories of the numbers of dresses she possessed, and the time and thought spent on her toilet.

Elizabeth's learning and love for books were as remarkable as her love of fine clothes. Among the Royal Books is one of prayers composed in English by Elizabeth's stepmother, Queen Catharine Parr. This book is translated by Elizabeth into Latin, French, and Italian, all written in her own hand when she was fifteen. Later she replied in Greek to the addresses at the universities, and appreciated to the full the writings of the men who made her reign so great and famous.

There are beautiful houses still standing where Elizabeth made merry with her court, for she delighted in going about to pay visits. Can you fancy the rush of countryfolk to see the gay party pass? For the gentlemen wore clothes as smart as the ladies, and the coaches were gilded and painted and the horses had fine trappings. No wonder these "progresses" helped the people to know and like their gay young queen. It is said that Shakespeare came from his home near by, and saw the acting and shows that went on for days.

The queen had to face great difficulties all through her long reign, and Burleigh was one of the faithful and good advisers who helped her to put an end to the quarrels about religion, and to keep at peace with other countries as far as possible.

The Queen's Cousin who Left a Throne to Die in a Tower

Scotland in those days was torn in two, like England, between those who followed the Pope and those who did not. Those in favor of him sent little Mary to France to be brought up there, and to marry the French king's eldest son. Her young husband soon died and Mary sorrowfully left the gay court of France and came back to hard and troubled times in her own kingdom. She married her cousin, Darnley, and their little son became James VI of Scotland.

Mary had many quarrels with her subjects, the chief one being that they believed she had something to do with the murder of her husband, Darnley. Later she fled to England, and Elizabeth kept her a prisoner in various castles and finally caused her to be beheaded.

The Great Wealth and the Great Cruelty of Spain

England passed through a great and most exciting time after Mary's execution. Soon after Elizabeth became queen, Philip, her brother-in-law, had

wanted her to marry him, so that England and Spain might join against France. Spain was very powerful, because it possessed the Netherlands, so rich from commerce in the wool trade, in which England had a share. Spain had, too, the wealth brought by the splendid discoveries of Columbus in the New World. But Elizabeth would not listen; she helped Philip's Protestant subjects in the Netherlands, and Philip in return helped Mary's plots against Elizabeth. The English hated the Spaniards at this time for their cruelty to the Protestants, and also because they tried to keep England out of all the trade they could in the New World. Sailors such as Hawkes and Drake, pounced on the Spanish treasures when they could, either on shore or at sea, and at last Philip determined to add England to his other dominions by conquest.

Ships poured out of every harbor as the Armada sailed in a broad crescent up the Channel. Elizabeth, on horseback, reviewed her troops at Tilbury, encouraging her captains and men by her presence and her speech.

"I know," said she, "that I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England, too."

The ships of the enemy were slow and helpless, and got in each other's way; while the little "sea hawks" of the English darted in and out, and drove the Armada out to sea by sending fire-ships among them, so that they fled away to the North Sea in a terrible storm. Those that were not wrecked escaped round the north of Scotland and west of Ireland. To this day there are traces here and there along the coasts of the disastrous retreat of the Spanish Armada.

THE END OF ELIZABETH'S REIGN AND THE END OF THE TUDORS

For thirty years the terror of Spain had hung over it, and now that power was laid low, and England became of importance among the countries of Europe.

Notwithstanding all the greatness and glory of Elizabeth's reign, the excitement of discoveries, the satisfaction of success, when the end came it found her a lonely old woman. Most of her friends died before her. She had neither husband nor child to care for. She had never seen Mary's son, who was to succeed her, but she wrote to him two months before her death, begging him not to believe some charges brought against her. She signed herself, "Your loving and friendly sister, Elizabeth."

Two months later a rider sped north on relays of horses, night and day, to be the first to tell James Stuart, the King of Scotland, that he was also King of England.

THE TIMES OF THE STUARTS

THE messenger who rode north at such breakneck speed to tell James Stuart that his cousin Elizabeth was dead did the journey in a few days, much to everyone's surprise. Now news is flashed between Edinburgh and London in a few seconds, and travel the distance by rail in about eight hours!

So secure did James feel about the succession to the English crown that his journey south was a sort of pleasure excursion.

Three centuries had passed since the old Hammer of the Scots, Edward I had so ardently desired that the north and south kingdoms should be united under one ruler—three centuries of constant war, now on one side, now on the other. Yet the desired union of the crowns did not come about on the battlefield, but peacefully by inheri-

tance, and by request of Parliament, when James VI of Scotland was crowned James I of England in the old coronation chair, over the old block of stone that the Scots had so hated to lose, within a few feet of Edward's resting-place in the Abbey.

For another hundred years the two countries had their own Parliaments and governments; but under the last of the Stuarts the union became complete.

The first settlers from every country had hard times to bear, and much failure. It was Sir Walter Raleigh who named England's first colony after Queen Elizabeth, Virginia, and James gave it a charter. By this time Spain, Portugal, Holland, France, all had dominions on each side of the Atlantic, and very soon struggles and fights about the new lands arose, which led to nearly two centuries of war among the five greater nations of Europe.

THE GROWTH OF THE NATION IN MODERN TIMES

THE times that followed the Stuarts were times of war which lasted all through the eighteenth century, and part of the nineteenth, and was finally settled at the battle of Waterloo on June 18, 1815.

This long struggle of over a hundred years was one long, mighty struggle between France and England for possession of lands in America and Asia, and the sovereignty of the seas that formed the highway to them.

It was not by accident nor by chance that those great groups of land, Canada and the West Indies, South Africa and Australia and New Zealand, came to be inhabited chiefly by English-speaking people, who still call the British Isles their home. In the main, it was the various stages of one long duel, by the bravery and devotion of generations of soldiers and sailors, that turned Great Britain into the Greater Britain of today.

THE BEGINNING OF QUEEN VICTORIA'S LONG REIGN

The spirit of expansion, shown by the growth of the nation abroad, was working strongly all the time in England. The last of the Georges died, and was succeeded by William the Fourth, the sailor king, after whose short reign of seven years the throne fell to a girl of nineteen years, Princess Victoria.

The life of Queen Victoria was full of great and stirring events for the country, and her reign was not only the longest, but the most prosperous reign in the history of the land.

HOW PRINCESS VICTORIA CAME TO THE THRONE AT EIGHTEEN

Many queens of England we may pass by, until we come to the grandchild of King George III, who came to the throne after two of her uncles had ruled.

This was Victoria who died in 1901, having reigned for nearly sixty-four years, longer than any other king or queen of England.

She was a young maiden of eighteen when she began to reign; and soon after she chose for her husband a German prince, Albert. Their eldest son was Edward VII. Prince Albert, however, was not king, but only "Prince Consort"—that is, he had no power of his own in the government of England, though the queen might turn to him for counsel. But even so he had to be careful lest he should be charged with "interfering."

Now although, since the time of Anne, it has been the statesmen rather than the kings and queens who have ruled the country, yet a monarch may do much good and much evil—and George III did a good deal of both.

THE GREAT CHANCES THAT CAME ABOUT IN QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGN

But Victoria's rule was good, because she knew well when it would be wise and right for her to urge her own views upon British Ministers and upon foreign rulers, and when it would be wiser to set her own views on one side.

And so, again, as in the reigns of Elizabeth and Anne, the British Empire grew great and prosperous. The reign was one of peace; for though twice there were fightings for power in India, and twice in Afghanistan, and once in the very last years of her rule against the Boers in South Africa, yet there was one war only against a European nation—the Crimean War against Russia. The colonies of Great Britain grew so that they have become great states; and there were many great writers; and men of science made wonderful discoveries, so that the face of the earth changed more in that time than in centuries before.

Therefore many people think today that in ages to come men will look back upon the Victorian Era as one of the most wonderful periods in all time, because of the spread of knowledge and the growth of Britain's rule.

RULERS OF THE LATER TIME

Queen Victoria died in 1901, and was succeeded by her son, King Edward VII, whose death in 1910 plunged the British Empire into mourning. The British people are not in the habit of giving extra titles like the "great" and the "good" to their kings; but to Edward VII a title of high honor has been given, and men have called him Edward the Peacemaker. Shrewd and wise and genial, all men learned to trust his counsel, and he had the skill to turn folk from ill-feeling and suspicion to friendliness and confidence.

When Edward the Peacemaker passed away, his son George became king. For the second time, the monarch is a sailor prince, most fitted to rule over a nation whose greatness depends on her sailors more than all else. His people do not yet know him as they knew his father; for King Edward had played much of the king's own part while his mother still reigned. Yet we know enough to be assured that he will be a king worthy of his high calling, ranking with those whose names the nation holds in honor.

The fact that in the present year (1914) his has been baptized in the blood of the greatest war in the history of Europe will be sufficient in itself to signalize his reign.

AN ESKIMO WINTER SNOW HOUSE

LIFE AMONG THE ESKIMO

THE Eskimo have been called a circumpolar people, though they inhabit in great part the northern regions of North America. They comprise twenty-two different tribes, numbering about forty thousand, but the same characteristics are found in common.

These dwellers in a barren, bitter land are essentially a maritime people, and rarely get any distance from the sea from which they wrest a rough and precarious living. Their existence depends primarily on the seal, which gives them food and clothing and provides them with light and fuel. The word Eskimo means "raw meat eaters," and where civilization has not reached them they remain in the filthy and degraded state which has been their lot for centuries. These Eskimo are born and reared and spend their lives in circumstances which for hardship and primitiveness have few, if any, equals among even the least fortunate of the peoples of the world.

The harsh conditions of Nature which have compelled them to herd together have developed a crude and simple socialism among these children of the chase. Tents made of skins form their summer homes, and primitive houses give them accommodation during the winter. Into these structures men and women and children of different families are crowded, and in them the people are born, are ill and die, and from them they are carried to their graves.

Throughout the long Arctic winter these men, women and children live in one room, eating, drinking and sleeping, and mourning and merry-making; yet there is nothing in the nature of a breach of the peace. This amiability and toleration is one of the

most notable characteristics of the Eskimo people; indeed, they have no word to express scolding, nor have they the equivalent of "war." They are sparing of words, and their language is so compressed that one word will express the meaning of a score of words in other languages.

to have a just cause of complaint; but if dissatisfaction is expressed, then it is reckoned that he is punished. Dancing at these gatherings adds to the general good-humor of the occasion.

The ordinary marriage customs of the Eskimo are simple, and love-mak-

ESKIMO WOMEN CARRYING THEIR BABIES

In a spacious sort of hood the Eskimo carries her baby and goes about her work and her duties. When she sits down she jerks the hood forward and the infant is shot out, but the mother never fails to catch it. The hut, made of poles and skins, is a typical summer dwelling.

When quarrels arise, the Eskimo have a singular and amusing method of settling them. The man who has a grievance sets forth his complaint in a song, and when this has been composed to his satisfaction, his enemy is invited to come and listen to it, which the enemy does, for these occasions are something in the nature of general entertainments to which friends of both parties are welcomed. There is much drum-beating while the song of wrongs is being sung. If approval of the song is shown, then the vocalist is considered to have triumphed and

ing is an infinitely more prosaic proceeding than it is in countries which are more favored by Nature. Weddings are casual happenings, and there is no established form of marriage. If a man wants a wife he accordingly gets a woman to act as one. It is an elastic arrangement, for if the female does not prove satisfactory the man sends her back home and tries another, or he may keep her and still try another. When some sort of form is observed in relation to the marriage understanding, the bride is regarded as being adequately equipped if she

brings her clothes and a lamp and a knife. Having become a married woman, she forthwith carries out the heavy and often degrading duties attendant on her lord's welfare and comfort. There is much hard work to be done in preparing the sealskins for the needle. This task falls upon the women, who are obliged to chew the skin in order to soften it. Persistent occupation of this sort on such difficult material often wears the teeth down to the gums.

Value of Relationship

Despite this casual method of alliances, relationship is highly valued, and there is a strongly developed wish to continue the species, with a particular desire for male descendants; consequently, there exists a real regard for children, and the little mortals are treated with a care and kindness that could scarcely be expected from parents reared in such a repressing environment. From the cradle to the grave the Eskimo has to fight for his existence, yet everything it is possible to do is done for the children. The youngsters are docile and contented, and rarely know the meaning of harshness or unkindness. Orphans are readily adopted, even when parents have a number of children to provide for; and it seldom happens that these new-comers are not treated with just the same kindness and consideration that are shown to the parents' own offspring.

In the matter of dress there is little difference between that of the men and the clothing of the women. Trousers are common to both sexes and the forms of headdress are practically the same. The men of South Greenland wear a garment called a *timiak*, made of bird-skins, the feathers being turned inward. This *timiak* has a hood, which is drawn over the head in the open air. Another garment, called *anorak*, a sort of vest, made of cotton, is worn over the *timiak*. The trousers are made of sealskin, and the same material is employed for the footgear, which serves the double purpose of sock and shoe. The combination is called *kamils*. These consist of an inner sock, with the fur turned inward, and an outside shoe, made of hairless, watertight hide. Into the fur interior the naked foot is put.

The women also of South Greenland wear a jacket made of bird-skin, but it differs from the men's garment in that it has no hood. Instead of the hood there is a high collar made of black dog-skin, outside of which a highly colored broad necklace of beads is worn. In the cases of both men and women, the wrists of the bird-skin garments are decorated with black dog-skin, the women's cotton vests being the brightest colors that can be obtained. In spite of her apparently hopeless environment, the Eskimo woman possesses an astonishing amount of feminine vanity, and, in addition to donning as much color as she can assume, she uses brightly colored leather to embroider her trousers of mottled sealskin or the skin of the reindeer.

The most striking of the Eskimo garments, however, is the *amant*, which is used by women who are nursing children. The *amant* is in appearance very much like the *anorak*, with the exception that at the back there is a sort of pouch into which the child is put. This pouch is lined with sealskin or reindeer-skin, and forms a cosy and warm and safe retreat for the child; and it enables the mother to carry the infant about with her constantly, without interfering in any way with her duties and her work.

Decorative Dress of the Eskimo

More elaborate and decorative still is the dress of the Eskimo who live

A GREENLAND BEAUTY

In and near the settlements there are some quite attractive-looking women, but these are not the pure Eskimo breed. The faces and features of the pure-bred Eskimos are flatter than that which is shown. The lace adornment is uncommon, and is probably foreign work. The girl shown is about twenty years old, and is Mongolian with a mixture of Danish blood. She comes from Tkerasak, North-west Greenland.

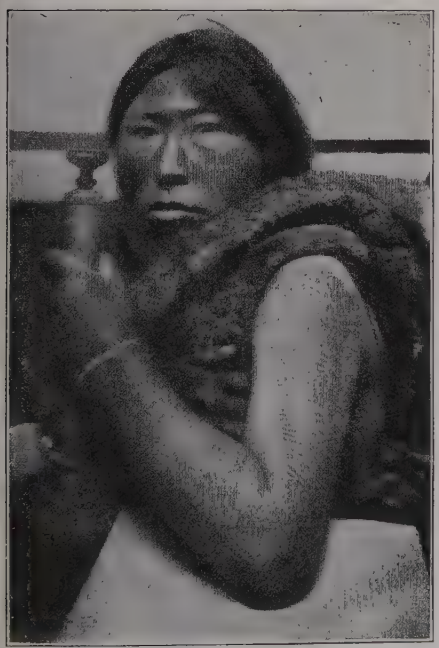
CUTTING UP A SEAL

The seal is the mainstay of the Eskimos, and the capture and cutting up of one is an absorbingly interesting event. To the left of the photograph is seen a kayak, the light canoe in which the Eskimo does his work afloat.

BOYS' GAMES

The Eskimos are a cheerful people and enter with great zest into their simple games. A party of young people is shown who have been disporting themselves with a sledge, the places of the dogs have been taken by children.

in and near the missionary settlements. This statement has special application to the females, and the quite modern type of Eskimo girl is often very much of a belle, and the children are well and picturesquely clothed. So completely up to date are the more fortunate of them that they are provided with snow goggles, which are also used by the women, especially when they are engaged in outdoor tasks, such as fishing, which require the exercise of great patience. When the women of some of the tribes are unable to satisfy their cravings for finery, they have some compensation in the crude tattooings which are carried out, and which are looked upon as distinct embellishments.



A TATTOOED WOMAN

The modern and mixed type of Eskimos are occasionally tattooed, but in some of the circumpolar regions the practice is unknown.

The hair of the Eskimo does not readily lend itself to attractive dressing, though a few of the most comely women manage to give it an agreeable appearance. Black and straight, and exceedingly coarse, the hair of the men is mostly allowed to grow wild, and sometimes it is never cut. A band or thong is used to keep the hair back from the face. The usual mode of dressing adopted by the women is to knot the hair in a tuft on the crown of the head. This knot or tuft is a source of great pride, and the wearer's chief object is to make it stand up as stiff as possible. In the knotting and tying different colored ribbons are used in Greenland. A red ribbon is worn by unmarried women; but if they have had a child the red is changed to green, this color being also worn by a widow who has a child. A blue ribbon indicates a married woman and a black ribbon a widow: but frequently old widows wear a white ribbon.

The very nature of the Eskimo's lives makes personal cleanliness impossible. When water is to be had only by melting snow or ice by means of precious fuel, it follows that the liquid is used only for essential purposes. Some advantage in the way of cleanliness and comfort is gained by the custom of certain Eskimo, men, women and children, going about in their tents and houses entirely naked. The unwholesome warmth of the interiors of these dwellings induces the Eskimo to cast aside their clothing in the way described. The custom disappears with the advent of Europeans, but Dr. Nansen considered this as more the result of affectation than real modesty.

RELIGION A COMPOUND OF IDOLATRY AND FEAR

The religion of the Eskimo is a compound of fear and idolatry, but mostly fear, the greatest of all the spirits he dreads being the spirit of Death, called *Torngak*. This imaginary being is a fit dweller in a suppositious cavern in the lonely mountains, and as he is believed to hold the lives and

fortunes of the Eskimo in the hollow of his mighty hand varied measures are taken to propitiate him. This spirit is approached through the conjuror, who is also employed when dealings are necessary with lesser spirits, whose homes are believed to be in the depths of the sea or in secret places on the land. The Eskimo do not believe in the existence of a hell. Religious festivals are held by the Eskimo, who, in conducting them, wear masks to give effect to their performances. However, they are very susceptible to the influence of the missionaries who work among them, and many have not hesitated to abandon their pagan practices in favor of Christianity. The Eskimo, too, in other directions show a tendency to relinquish old habits when they are satisfied that new methods are better.

Many diseases, particularly consumption, ravage the Eskimo, whose hard lives and often insufficient food make them ready victims to grave ailments. Nor do the people as a rule attain an advanced age, though the modern medical methods which are being employed amongst them are undoubtedly tending to a prolongation of life.

When Eskimo die, their bodies are buried on land or cast into the sea, the particular possessions of the deceased being placed on the beach or by the grave. This is partly for the sake of getting the things out of the way, so that they shall not act as reminders of the departed, and partly because there is a feeling that the dead person may have use of them in the spirit world and may have that use when the things are destroyed and the spirits have gone to another sphere.

Civilization, through missionaries, has done much for the Eskimo and has greatly altered their customs and mode of life.

A LONELY SEPULCHER

When a man is buried his possessions are put in or outside the grave, and here is seen one of the soapstone shallow dishes which are used as lamps.

RUINS OF THE TEMPLE OF THE OLYMPIAN ZEUS

This is all that is left of what was once one of the seven wonders of the world. Notice how the column in the foreground has fallen showing the eighteen pieces of which it is constructed.

THE GLORY OF ANCIENT GREECE

THE most eastern of the three peninsulas jutting down into the Mediterranean from Europe is Greece. It is irregular in shape and is bounded on the north by Dalmacia and the Balkan States. It is practically separated into two portions by the gulf of Corinth and is connected by a narrow isthmus, which is actually cut by a sea-level canal. The country is very small and lies open to the enticing sea. This very smallness, however, proved a most potent stimulous to the development of mind and body, because the state required for her protection intelligence combined with the utmost physical strength and agility. Hence arose the great interest in athletics.

The promising winners in local contests were sent to the great national games, the most famous of which were the Olympic; and the simple olive wreath that rewarded the victor brought glory to his family and state. Long after Greece had become part of the Roman empire a wealthy Athenian built for his city a magnificent marble stadium. It fell to ruins, as did Athens and the empire.

We read in history with what gallantry and determination the Greeks defended their northern mountain walls during the world-struggle between the East and West in the fifth century before Christ. We know, too, at that time how open to attack were the sea-washed coasts, and how invaluable were the fine harbors, such as Salamis. But before turning to those thrilling times, let us wander back through the centuries to catch a few glimpses of the earlier state of the country. We want to see the beginnings of the race.

A poor, blind old man, we are told, though some would have it that he never existed, wandered round the coasts of the Ægean Sea, some three or four hundred years before the time when the whole land was in a turmoil, fitting out ships and gathering soldiers to resist the Persians. This old man, Homer, like other minstrels before him, sang or recited, as he went, the grandest songs of adventure and fighting that the world has ever heard. Homer nearly 3000 years ago was handing down, as he sang, the history, clothed in a poetic dress, of

times perhaps three or four centuries earlier than his own.

In museums we can see manuscripts, 2000 years old, of the two great poems —the "Iliad," or the taking of Ilium, or Troy, and the "Odyssey," which tells of the wonderful wanderings of the great hero, Odysseus.

Once people thought that everything in the "Iliad" and "Odyssey" was fairy-tale, because there is so much in them that can be nothing but beautiful make-believe. The spade of the explorer, however, has shown, within the last fifty years, how much truth and history lie hidden in Homer's songs. We know now that brilliant memories of times gone by are enshrined in the legends.

THE PALACES OF THE GREEK HEROES THAT WERE HIDDEN FOR CENTURIES

In the northwest corner of Asia Minor, near the Hellespont, scholars believe they have found the ruins of Troy, or Ilium, itself, and in Mycene, in the Peloponnesus, they have unearthed a palace with golden treasure, like the home of Agamemnon, the leader of the Achæans who fought against Troy. Grand indeed is it to have actual touch with those far-off stirring times, and most deeply interesting are the remains to be seen in museums of pictures cut in roller seals or painted on plaster, as well as wonderful treasures of gold, such as ornaments and cups.

How long this civilization had lasted is not yet known, but on many Mediterranean sites have been found widespread traces of it. In the beautiful island of Crete, for instance, stood a marvelous palace, three stories high, as large as a town, belonging to times still earlier than those of Mycene and Troy. The story of its exploration is one of the most entrancing ever told, especially as it unravels one of the wonderful old Greek stories, that of the monster Minotaur, and the labyrinth, or palace with winding passages, in which he lived.

THE MEN WHO SETTLED ON A STRIP OF LAND AND BECAME DARING SAILORS

It was during the years when this old civilization was flourishing round the Ægean Sea that many families of people were migrating westwards from their homes on the lower basin of the Euphrates, where life was so full and busy and there was constant need for more room. One of these families, known as the Phœnicians, settled, as Abraham of the same race had done long before, in Syria, the country between Asia Minor and Egypt. These Phœnicians occupied a narrow strip of land, about 200 miles long by about 20 broad, between the sea and the mountains of Syria, where grew the famous cedars of Lebanon. Energetic and clever people they were, and they became daring sailors and most successful traders. Placed midway between the East and West, they became the merchant carriers of the known world; the productions of the old empires on the Nile and the Euphrates passed through their hands, and were taken in their little ships, wherever they could find a market.

Farther and farther afield they pushed their way, building forts to protect their trade, much as the Dutch, French, and British did thousands of years later. They were miners and metal-workers, too, and it was chiefly in the quest for silver that they passed the Pillars of Hercules and founded Gades, or Cadiz, facing the broad Atlantic. It was the rumor that tin was to be found in England that led them to pass the Bay of Biscay and land in Cornwall.

HOW THE PHŒNICIANS BECAME THE MERCHANTS OF THE WORLD

These people are mentioned in the "Iliad" as famous workers in metal;

A leading feature of Greek life was the great Olympic festival, held every fourth year at Olympia, at which athletes and musicians and poets and artists were present from all parts of Greece and contended for the simple prizes, that took the form of olive crowns. In this picture we see a victorious poet being carried in triumph.

Here we see the end of one of the great foot races at Olympia. These Olympic games were no mere idle sport. They were dedicated to Jupiter, and represented all that the Greeks held to be most worthy in human life. They were a part of the religion of Greece, and the sternest means were taken to prevent anything like cheating.

So sacred were the Olympic games considered by all the different Greek states, that if they were at war the fighting was suspended during the period of the festival, and only resumed after the competitors had returned to their homes. Of all the Greek states none encouraged athletics more than Sparta, whose male citizens were rigorously trained by the State from the age of seven. Here we see the famous Spartan gymnasium.

in the "Odyssey," they are spoken of chiefly as daring sailors and pirates.

They saw the advantages of Malta, and Cyprus, the copper island for harbors and footholds, but their chief colony, which flourished exceedingly after the great days of Phœnicia had gone by, was Carthage, on the north coast of Africa, nearest to Sicily. So strong and rich did this colony become that it founded other colonies, such as New Carthage, in Spain, and contested long and nobly with the Greeks and Romans in later days.

And all the time that the Phœnicians were facing the waves in storm and sunshine, buying and selling everywhere, from the very old Greek cities and from Britain, and founding colonies, they were also making great wealth from a beautiful purple dye obtained from a little shell-fish gathered on their shores. It is astonishing indeed how much life and work had its home on that narrow strip of shore, especially around the two great cities Sidon and Tyre, both of which had afterwards such tragic histories. The name Tyre brings to mind its king, Hiram, who helped David and his son Solomon so much in the building of the great Temple at Jerusalem, sending them cedar and bronze and cunning workmen, as we read in the Bible.

While the Phœnicians were thus at the height of their power, great numbers of people had been coming on from the east, round the Black Sea, pushing forward and southward the tribes in front of them. And so it happened that, some years after the fall of Troy, an uprising of the states round the northwest of the Ægean Sea took place on the arrival of new tribes seeking new homes.

In the years of fighting and trouble which followed, the old high civilization was lost, and when at last things settled down, we find Greece—or Hellas, as the people themselves called it—cut up into small states, mostly shut in by surrounding mountains, but open to the sea.

THE QUARRELS THAT PREVENTED THE GREEKS BUILDING A GREAT EMPIRE

All were fiercely independent, and though the Hellenes were all of the same race, they were very different in nature. We know but little of the long struggles the newcomers had with the old inhabitants, the very early Greeks, or of the difficulties that arose as they mingled with them, and overflowed to the islands of the Ægean and the coasts of Asia Minor beyond.

The three chief tribes of the Hellenes were the Ionians, the Dorians, and the Æolians. All through the history of the rise and fall of Hellas, or Greece, these people never united under one ruler. Incessant and bitter to the very end were the quarrels and jealousies among all the states founded by them.

The chief Ionian state was Athens, with the country round called Attica, that little peninsula, northeast of Corinth. The Ionians soon spread out over the middle islands of the Ægean Sea to Asia Minor, where they founded the cities afterwards so famous as Smyrna and Ephesus. In the Peloponnesus was Sparta, the chief Dorian state; and it also soon formed settlements, chiefly in Crete, Rhodes, and Cyprus. To the west of Attica lay Bœotia, with its capital, Thebes, settled eventually by the Æolian family, neither so clever as the Ionians nor so brilliant in war as the Dorians, but more steady and persevering than either. They expanded to the north of the Ionians.

THE FALL OF TYRE AND THE RISE OF GREECE AS A SEA-POWER

The early settlement of the states is a long and intricate story, with many changes of government, and much

fighting among themselves. Still, shut off in the peninsula by their triple rampart of mountains to the north, they had some centuries free from foreign invasion in which to develop according to their natures and the opportunities of their country.

MEDIAEVAL FORTIFICATIONS AT CORINTH
These fortifications date from the 15th century when Venice held sway throughout the Mediterranean.

The brilliant period of Phœnicia did not last many centuries. Nebuchadnezzar took Tyre in the sixth century before Christ, and the Persians annexed the whole district soon after, glad enough to get the use of the great fleets of ships for their wars and commerce.

As the sea-power of the Phœnicians went down, that of the Greeks rose, till they, in their turn, became masters of the Mediterranean, trading and exploring everywhere and founding colonies on a grand scale. Besides those to the east were the important ones in the south of Italy and Sicily which came in time to be called Greater Hellas or Greece. From the colony at Marseilles, then called Massilia, three centuries before Julius Cæsar crossed the English Channel, sailed the ardent old sailor and geographer, Pytheas to the distant island of Britain. We know how much Egypt was influenced in its later times by Greek trade and Greek learning, when at last the persevering merchants had managed to gain a footing in that China of the Mediterranean.

THE IRON LAWS OF SPARTA THAT TREATED MEN AS IF THEY WERE MACHINES

It was in the same century that Homer is believed to have lived that the famous laws of Sparta were settled by Lycurgus. These iron laws arranged the lives of Spartans from birth to death as if they were parts of a machine. Baby boys were not allowed to live at all if they were not strong, and those who passed the judges were taken from their mothers when seven years old to be brought up by the State, so as to turn out fine soldiers. They lived in barracks in the hardest and simplest way possible, and were made to endure hunger, fatigue, and even thrashing. To this day we say of anyone who endures discomfort and suffering without complaining that he is a Spartan, and a proverb we often use, "Hunger is the best sauce," comes down to us from a Spartan cook who was speaking of the horrid black broth these boys had to take.

We have read in the story of the pass of Thermopylæ, several hundred years after Lycurgus framed his laws, what sort of soldiers this military training turned out.

The Ionian Athenians developed on very different lines. They had many

difficulties and troubles to endure before their laws and arrangements settled down into one of the most perfect systems of government by the people, ever known. Their great reforming law-giver was Solon, one of the wise men of Greece, who lived about one hundred years before the Persian wars begun. About this time, too, the great fable-writer, Æsop, is said to have lived.

The influence which Greece has exercised upon the world in art, literature and philosophy is all the more marked when we consider her insignificance and comparatively small area.

Happily, we possess a great wealth of illustration to show us what manner of men these Greeks were, especially the Athenians. Many of their thoughtful writings, histories, plays, poems, and speeches have been handed down through the centuries by scholars who have loved and studied them.

The sculpture which has been found in recent years in excavating, has never been equaled since the time when it was made. And we are equally indebted to the Greeks in the matter of architecture. Actual survey of such buildings as the Parthenon, show that the Greeks knew and practiced a great many tricks to make the aspect of a building more pleasant—tricks of which we have been not only ignorant up to date but which we are just beginning to learn from actual observation of these ancient buildings.

THE PICTURES ON THE VASES THAT SHOW US THE LIFE OF THE OLD GREEKS

From the earliest days the Greeks made fine pottery, and ornamented it with designs and pictures. The early stiff work of the eighth and seventh centuries before Christ gave way to the interesting subjects chosen by the artists of the sixth and fifth centuries.

First and foremost, we must notice the graceful and varied shapes of the vases, according to the use for which they were designed. Often the potter-artist signs his name on the vase, as well as the picture-artist. The subjects chosen for these are chiefly scenes from the old stories in which the religion and history of the country are so entwined, and scenes from daily life, especially in the fifth and fourth centuries before Christ, when vase-painting rose to its greatest perfection. After these times it declined.

Helped by the beauty of the clear skies, wooded hills, and dancing streams of Greece, the bright imaginations of its old inhabitants put life into everything around them. The dancing waves became merry maidens—even we talk of the foam as white horses—fairies and nymphs dwelt in every shady wood and in the sparkling water.

The religion of the Greeks was colored very highly by their fancy and they introduced nymphs and spirits to impersonate in a great many of the elements and phases of nature. Although their religion fell short in its moral code it is ideally so beautiful that Grecian Mythology is taught extensively in our modern schools.

LITTLE PICTURES OF BOYS AND GIRLS OF LONG AGO

Those illustrating daily life are equally delightful. The babies playing with carts and make-believe meals might be seen in any nursery today, and the little girls at their dancing lessons, the boys with more serious work, seem just as real to us as to the artists who drew them.

On other vases we can see how the potter made his pots; how the girls spun the soft hanging material of which they made their simple garments; how they gossiped together as girls do now, while bringing water from the well.

THE PARTHENON
This building is supposed to be the most perfect piece of architecture ever constructed

The glory of ancient Athens, once the finest city in the world, is represented today by a pile of noble ruins, and in this view we see the famous Acropolis, the hill on which many temples stood.

There are many entertainment scenes, where the guests are reclining on couches.

The beautiful pictures of ships recall the blue Mediterranean and the naval glory of Greece; and the scene of olive-gatherers reminds us of the numbers of olive trees round Athens, which gave the valuable oil so much sought after.

Some of the larger vases were prizes for sports and games, won long ago and buried with the proud winner when he died. Often, however, the prize in the games was simply a wreath of leaves; At Athens the prize was one of the vases with some of the precious olive oil in it.

How Athens Rose in Glory from the Ashes of Desolation

And this leads us to the city of Athens, and its hill called the Acropolis, where the Persians destroyed the sacred buildings and slew the few hundred people who stayed behind when the rest fled to the ships. There is a blackened layer to be seen today when digging is done to a certain depth on the Acropolis—the relics of the ruin wrought by the Persians.

Soon after this war was ended, the Athenians, helped by three of their great men, Pericles the ruler, Ictinos architect, and Phidias the sculptor, set to work with extraordinary energy to restore the mischief done by the enemy. Acropolis comes from two Greek words meaning "upper city" and the rock itself was originally used as a place of security against attacks from the outside. Later, however, when Athens grew in size, it came to be used merely for the temples dedicated to the various deities. The principal one of these was the Parthenon. This building for 1000 years remained a temple of the goddess Athena Parthenos, and that is how it received the name of the Parthenon. For another 1000 years it was used as a Christian church, and then as a Turkish mosque. Now it is one of the grandest ruins of the world, and the sculptures are studied by all who wish to understand the most beautiful ways of expressing the human form. As we gaze in wonder and admiration at the glorious figures of the gods and goddesses, we reflect what models Phidias must have had before his eyes.

The Treasures of Ancient Greece That We Can See Today

The various details of the frieze which runs round the outside of the temple give a glowing picture of the grand procession in which all Athens took part in the centuries of its greatness. The winners of vases were there, as well as the gentle, modest maidens who had embroidered a beautiful robe for the goddess. There were, also, the splendid prancing horses, the musicians the bearers of offerings, and the gentle animals for sacrifice.

There were three statues of Athena on the Acropolis—a little old wooden one, supposed to have fallen from heaven; an enormous bronze one, seventy feet high, that the sailors could see and salute at sea, five miles off; and a gorgeous gold and ivory one, forty feet high, in the Parthenon. Then there was the equally large statue of Athena's father, Zeus, in the temple at Olympia in the Peloponnesus. It was at Olympia that the great national games were held, the prizes in which were so eagerly competed for. The work on the gems and the jewelry of the most notable period is so wonderful that its beauty is seen fully only by the aid of a magnifying glass.

Meeting the Persian Hosts

There is the story of the gallant little town of Platæa, which sent its whole army of 1000 men to face, with Athens, the hosts of the Persians, while other states were sending all sorts of excuses for non-appearance.

Sparta could not leave the yearly games. This action of the Platæans has always been looked upon as one of the most heroic in Greek history, for what hope could they have had of winning?

While Xerxes was getting ready for the third invasion of Greece, there were busy times in the ports of Athens. Themistocles, one of the great men of the period, was doing his best to make Athens a great naval state by building ships with all the money that could be raised. How useful these ships were after Thermopylæ was forced and Athens burned. They saved Greece at Salamis, defeating the great and powerful Persian fleet in the narrow waters before the eyes of Xerxes.

How the Great Army of Xerxes was Driven Out of Greece

It is said that on the very same day that the battle of Salamis was fought, the Greeks who had settled in Sicily totally defeated the Phœnicians of Carthage, who had landed in their country. There were two other battles, both on the same day, in the following year. They were the momentous battle of Platæa, when Greece gathered the largest force she had ever mustered to meet the picked men of the Persian army that Xerxes had left behind, and, second, the sea-fight across the Ægean at Mycale, between Ephesus and Miletus. Both resulted in victories for the Greeks; Xerxes troubled them no more.

If only the states could have united into one nation at this time, they would have had a great future. By defeating and driving away the forces of the mighty Persian Empire they had raised themselves from a collection of little states, with an independence depending on their position, to a place in the world as brave freemen, among nations who were the slaves of despots. But union was never farther off.

The Spartans and Athenians remained sworn enemies, first one and then another gaining the lead. In the middle of the fifth century, when Pericles was rebuilding Athens and Herodotus was traveling and writing, Athens raised its power to a great height, but in so doing made bitter enemies of Sparta and Bœotia, and when these attacked her, little by little her possessions melted away. With her loss of power all hope of Greek unity was gone. Many were the battles and sieges, revolts and truces, in those days.

The Quarrels of the Greek States and the Downfall of Athens

While Athens was on the downgrade a great expedition was planned to retrieve her fortunes in Sicily, where Dorian settlers had grown very rich in Syracuse. But it failed utterly, and left Athens weaker than ever, with her best sailors and soldiers sacrificed in the ruin that fell upon her. After a few years she revived, and war with the Spartans now raged round the Hellespont. This time the Athenians were successful, and Byzantium passed to them from the Spartans; but the end of the war between the rivals was brought about by the capture of Athens.

It was now that the expedition of the 10,000 Greeks made its adventurous way into the heart of Persia, and then back by way of the Black Sea. When their leader, Xenophon, reached Athens, he was deeply grieved to find that his friend and teacher, the great and wise Socrates, had been condemned to death. Socrates loved searching after truth, and had a masterly way of cross-questioning his hearers that brought home to them their ignorance. His pupil, Plato, was an equally noble man, whose teaching will never die.

Just below the Acropolis was the large open-air theater where the prize

plays of the great writers of Greece were performed to enraptured and critical audiences during the centuries so torn with wars and jealousies.

THE DANGER THAT THREATENED THE GREEK STATES FROM THE NORTH

The Spartans who had a turn of the chief power for awhile, were greatly hated for their selfishness and hardness, and the time came when they, too, lost their fine position and their navy; and then Thebes had some continued successes under their leader, Epaminondas. When he died it was not the long-dreaded Persians who were now to be feared as possible conquerors of the disunited states of Greece. The danger came from an unexpected quarter, from Macedonia, on the northern and western shores of the Ægean Sea.

The Macedonians were in race a mixture of the Greeks and the less civilized tribes whom they called barbarians. They had long had their own kings, but little heed was paid to them by their southern neighbors. It was when a very clever and ambitious king, Philip, came to the Macedonian throne that danger began to threaten.

He drilled and improved his army, annexed the barbarian countries around him, and, by playing his game with wonderful craft and skill, he took advantage of the weakness of the Athenians, Spartans, and Bœotians, and won the great aim of his life, the headship of the Greek states.

Demosthenes, the great orator, who saw through his plans and wiles, was his chief enemy. In the assembly at Athens he thundered forth again and again in stirring speeches that have come down to us, trying to persuade his countrymen to change their ways before it was too late.

THE DARK DAY WHEN THE FREEDOM OF GREECE PASSED AWAY FOREVER

In the final battle of Chæronea, Demosthenes, the orator at forty-seven years of age, was fighting in the Athenian ranks. Imagine his feelings on the evening of that awful day. The Athenians lost 1000 men on the field, and 2000 were prisoners in Philip's hands. The flower of the Theban army died to a man where it stood. The freedom of Greece was gone, and the outward glory of Athens was laid in the dust. Great as Philip was, for he had raised Macedonia from being a small, half-barbarous state to the headship of Greece, he had a still greater son, Alexander, whose extraordinary career of conquest we read in the story of Persia.

Demosthenes proposed and carried a vote of thanksgiving when the news came of Philip's death. But Alexander crushed all hopes of freedom in Greece, and quickly showed his wonderful military genius in a campaign in Thrace. And then he set out on larger expeditions, till all the known parts of Asia and Africa were his, and he only longed for more worlds to conquer.

After his early death there was long fighting and confusion as to who should succeed to the great empire that he had built by conquest, and at length three separate kingdoms arose on its ruins. Macedonia with Greece fell to Antigonus.

HOW "CAPTIVE GREECE LED CAPTIVE HER PROUD CONQUEROR"

About a hundred years later, 168 years before Christ, Macedonia was made a Roman province. Twenty years after that, Corinth, the busy trading Panama of Greece, was taken and Greece itself was made subject to Rome. But as one of the Roman poets has said, "Captive Greece led captive her proud conqueror."

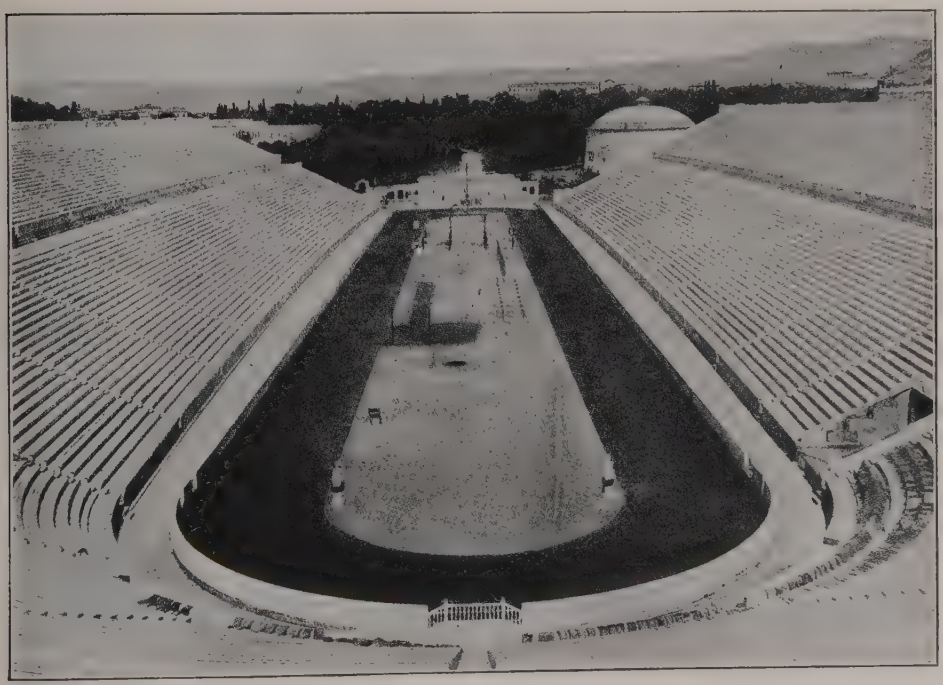
Rome had for years been learning from the art and literature of Greece, and when the conquest came, celebrated by long triumphant processions in Rome, instead of the usual train of

vanquished kings and queens, strange beasts, and a great show of barbaric splendor, there passed before the Roman people the grand, silent forms in marble and bronze, the beautiful art treasures of Greece, torn from shrines and temples to adorn Roman cities, and to serve as models to the whole world.

Alexander had done his share in showing Greece to Asia, but it was chiefly by means of the Roman arms that the knowledge of Greek art and Greek learning was carried beyond the narrow borders of the little peninsula. In fact, Greece then became a "country without borders," and her wonderful influence and power are felt in a hundred ways all over the world today.

It is said of modern Greeks that in coming to the United States they do not like to forswear allegiance to their own country and whenever they are able to return with a competency they do so.

They are proud of the wonderful history of their homeland and ever look back to it even as the Chinese do to the times of Confucius. Well they may; for the little country of Greece has taught the world many important and beautiful things which it otherwise would possibly not have known for centuries to come.



THE STADIUM AT ATHENS

Every city of Greece had a stadium, as nearly all festivals included athletic competition. The winners of the local contests were sent to the national games—the most famous of which were the Olympic.

A STORY PICTURE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

THE story of England and France all through the centuries is written plainly for those who have eyes to see, in the streets and buildings of their capitals. With Germany it is somewhat different.

In Berlin, the capital of Prussia and the empire, there is little that is more than about 200 years old. This city, which has grown up in so short a time, filling up the valley of the Spree with palaces and factories, illustrates the rise of Prussia and the founding of the empire under its leadership.

Ever since the days of the Great Elector, who first made elaborate plans for the city, and who planted the double avenue of basswood trees which has developed into a triumphal way for his successors, every ruler of Prussia has beautified the capital by adding fine streets and squares, and bridges, splendid palaces and museums, picture galleries and public buildings of all kinds. Miles of houses for rich and for poor have sprung up as the population has risen from a few thousands to over 2,000,000. And everywhere there are monuments and statues to keep in remembrance the men and the events that have helped to make Prussia and the German empire.

Lines from all parts converge upon Berlin, and within the well-kept city itself are railways and conveyances of every kind; for the Unter den Linden is a mile long, and the Thiergarten, the other side of the Brandenburg Gate, is a large park, and the suburbs lie widely distant.

The present Emperor has always taken great interest in statuary. He is a lover of monuments. Out of his own purse he has paid for a large number of marble statues which adorn the Thiergarten, each group representing one of the ancestors of the present Emperor and two of that ancestor's chief counsellors. The Kaiser has believed that there is the possibility of great influence coming from such visible symbols of what patriotic men have done for the Empire. Furthermore he ordered that the classes of children in the Berlin schools should regularly be taken by their teachers to these monuments where it would be explained who these men were and the incidents in history with which the heroes were connected.

The statues, set up by the nation, of the Emperor William I and his first Chancellor, Bismarck, are notable monuments. The classes pause beside the statues of the generals, the men of science, and, above all, the world-famed writers, such as Goethe and Schiller, whose beautiful thoughts are a bond of union not only for all Germans, but for all human beings who can read and understand them.

The teachers in charge of the class stop to point out the iron cross below the eagle in the copper group over the Brandenburg Gate. That group of Victory in a four-horse chariot was taken to Paris in 1807, when Napoleon crushed Prussia. It was restored seven years later, and it was then that the iron cross was added.

One cannot go far with the story of the German Empire without coming to the man who has been for more than twenty-five years the central figure in that country—the present Emperor, grandson of the Empress-Queen Augusta and William I.

His face looks out from the shop windows of the whole of Germany; from the walls of every hotel, school, church and every house and public building. This has been a part of the Emperor's vanity.

In his passion for royalty, he has made every effort to impress himself upon his people by keeping himself always before them. Display is a mania with him and expresses itself in an insatiable fondness for dress, fine horses, and all the imaginable pageantry of royalty.

People who have always looked upon a sovereign as a sort of automatic figure, only working and acting through others, can not understand this impetuous man, who from the beginning of his reign has come out of the stiff retirement hitherto thought necessary for a ruler, and has spoken his mind not only to his Ministers, but to his people. Bismarck himself, the grandfather's old friend and helper, could not see things in the same light and had many warm discussions over questions of policy and practical plans, but the young Emperor, of course, had his way and the old pilot had to be dropped. However, the progress in the past quarter of a century has been on the lines laid down in the old chart of the famous Chancellor, Bismarck. It is the world's misfortune that this Emperor, possessed of certain powerful characteristics, should have been so medieval in his ideas of government. Able though he has been, as judged by certain standards, his intense selfishness and vanity and his autocratic contempt of real democracy have been largely instrumental in bringing upon the world the greatest war of history. There was a time when we liked to read passages of eulogy of this man and admired his wide interests in men and affairs and careful attention to the smallest details of the army and navy, but now under the shadow of a universal tragedy his name is despised by the larger part of the civilized world. He is looked upon as the chief cause for the disgust and hatred which have fallen upon Germany as a partial result of the war.

William II spends part of the year at Potsdam, about eighteen miles from Berlin, a city of beautiful palaces and parks, often called the cradle of the Prussian Army, because it was here that Frederick the Great did so much to bring it into discipline and order.

Every German, when he is twenty, has to enter the Army and serve for a year or more, unless some acceptable reason prevents; so the whole nation is ruled by the military party. At the time of year when the recruits join, the trains are full of them going to the different stations all over Germany, or you meet them marching along the roads singing their patriotic songs. No doubt it is good for many of them to be drilled and made orderly, but some feel it a great interruption to study and examinations, and others are badly needed in factories and to till the fields.

It is impossible to conceive the great deprivation to the nation of the wages of over a half million men, lost to industry, agriculture and commerce. And this does not include the enormous, ever-increasing expense of the army and navy. Every year the nation has felt more heavily the burden of taxes levied for the support of the military class, until it has seemed that the people could no longer submit to them, and yet the taxes have gone higher and higher each year.

It is sad, indeed, to think of the vast sums spent on guns and battleships and armies, not only in Germany, but in the countries that feel obliged to keep pace with her. So long as men keep to the old barbarous idea of settling disputes about boundaries, or trade, or insults, by sending thousands of men to kill thousands of their fellows, every country is afraid to have fewer soldiers than its neighbor.

ROTTWEIL, ONE OF THE SMALLER GERMAN CITIES, NOTED FOR ITS SCULPTURES AND PAINTINGS.

William II is often called the creator of the German Navy, so rapid has been its rise in his times. Many who went before him said that it was necessary that the seaboard on the north should be protected, as well as the trading ships on the high seas. But real progress in this direction has only been made in late years, when battleship after battleship has been built and men have been trained to serve in them.

"If we have need of ships," said the Kaiser, "we must depend on ourselves," and so great shipbuilding yards have arisen along the sandy shores of the Baltic and North Seas, at the mouths of rivers where the water is deepest. At Stettin, on the Oder, at Danzig, on the Vistula, at Hamburg, on the Elbe, at Bremen, on the Weser, monster battleships and great liners, among the fastest in the world, take shape and start their journeys. The headquarters of the Navy are at Kiel; Wilhelmshaven is also a large naval port. These two are at the Baltic and North Sea ends of the great canal which now joins them.

When Bismarck passionately urged the necessity for this canal, so that ships might have a quicker way of getting out of the Baltic than by the narrow passages by Denmark and Sweden, his words opened up a new view of what the Navy might be, perhaps, an unhappy suggestion for Germany.

Before the war, some of the greatest ocean liners started from Hamburg and Bremen; both belonged to the old league of free cities. A steamer trip on the Elbe and in the port gives us the best idea of the wonders of Hamburg, one of the most important places for trade in the world, connected by railways with every part of Europe. Here emigrants embark for the United States and Canada, and ships belonging to every nation jostle each other in the busy harbor bringing the largest proportion of all that Germany needs, and taking away what she has to sell.

THE BUSY TOWNS AND CITIES ON GERMANY'S GREAT RIVERS

We know what she needs to some extent, from our own exports—flour, corn, pork, cotton, and other things grown in this country, as well as raw materials for manufactures. To find out what she has to sell and what she manufactures, one should travel up the rivers and on the lines of railways that run in their valleys and connect all the important centers. The Elbe, with its long, navigable course—right into Bohemia—and its many tributaries, and its system of canals, plays an important part in the trade of the empire. The Spree, on which Berlin stands, is one of its tributaries. On the banks of the Elbe are Dresden and Magdeburg. Dresden, the capital of Saxony, is full of treasures of art, and famous for delicate china works; Magdeburg is in the midst of great fields of beetroot, from which enormous quantities of sugar are made. Other industries are iron-founding and machine-making.

The River Oder runs a similar course to the Elbe, through fields of beet and potatoes or flax, and corn of different kinds. It also connects with Berlin by canal, so that the capital may be said to have two ports—Stettin, on the Oder, and Hamburg, on the Elbe. We have already seen how wonderfully Berlin has grown in its handsome west-end quarters. Its development in the matter of trade and factories is no less surprising. Thousands of workmen make in it machinery and locomotives, arms, chemicals, all sorts of woven goods, and every possible thing needed in furnishing a house.

Breslau, on the Oder, is the second city in Prussia, the capital of Silesia,

THE GREAT ZWINGER PICTURE GALLERY, DRESDEN, HOME OF THE FAMOUS SISTINE MADONNA

taken by Frederick the Great from Maria Theresa. Like Berlin, it manufactures steam-engines, railway carriages and linen and cotton goods.

These two great northern rivers come from the ring of mountains that have kept Bohemia so shut off through the centuries—the Giant Mountains and the Ore Mountains. Round about the lowest slopes of these mountains lie many coalfields, and mines of iron and zinc, and many other precious and useful metals.

THE MANUFACTURES THAT HAVE HELPED TO MAKE GERMANY PROSPEROUS

The wool of the sheep of Saxony and Silesia is used in the making of the famous flannels and warm materials prized all over the world. Formerly Germany was an agricultural country, growing enough corn and roots to feed its people, and raising great numbers of sheep, cattle, and horses. Now its chief wealth lies in its great manufacturing powers; and its energy and ability in this direction have been much admired. We have just glanced at some of the industries in the valleys of the northern rivers.

Passing westward, one comes to Leipzig, the seat of the book trade, and Jena, where lenses for telescopes and microscopes are made for the whole world. Cotton and silk factories are located in the northwest of the country, where it is easy to obtain the raw material from abroad, and coal from the neighboring coalfields. One of the largest of these is in the Ruhr Valley, near the Rhine, and upon it depend the enormous iron and steel works which supply most of the plates of iron and steel, the boilers and engines, and thousands of things needed to build up a great liner or warship, as well as cannon and arms of all kinds needed by the Army and Navy.

The Cathedrals and Factories on the Banks of the Rhine

In Krupp's great factory at Essen in peace times thirty thousand people were at work, and for miles round are growing towns, with tall, smoking chimneys, and the roaring blast furnaces and deafening clang of metal-working. The largest inland port in Europe is formed of three towns at the point where the Ruhr joins the Rhine, and here are docks and ship-building yards, besides business centers for grain and timber. Everywhere, too, are factories in which furniture is made.

There are many passenger steamers on the Rhine; one runs from the mouth, in Holland, as far as Maintz, and provides an easy and pleasant way to see this wonderful part of Germany. After passing the flat part of the course, where the interest of the busy work going on makes up for the dullness of the scenery, we reach Köln—better known to us by its French name of Cologne—famed for its cathedral, one of the most magnificent Gothic buildings in the world. It was over six hundred years in building, and when finished at last on the old plans, was opened in the presence of the Emperor William I and the sovereigns of Germany.

Not far from Cologne is Aachen, called by the French Aix-la-Chapelle, the home of Charlemagne, and there we can still see in the interesting cathedral a gilded candlestick presented by Barbarossa.

The Towns of the Rhine

The most important towns are Bonn, with its fine university, and Coblentz, beautifully situated where the Moselle joins the Rhine. On the terraced slopes of both rivers grow the vines from which much famous wine is made, and this trade makes Coblentz and other towns very busy.

On the Moselle is the oldest town in Germany, Trier, which the French call Treves, with its beautiful Roman bridge and gate and fine remains of theater, baths and temple. Here too, is a most interesting brick building, built in the fourth century, called the Basilica, where justice was administered. Now it is used as a Protestant church.

Some Famous Towns, a Famous Shoemaker's Shop, and a Forest

Maintz—in French, Mayence—has a fine position at the meeting of two rivers, and has a long and interesting history. Its museum is very famous for its rich collection of Roman remains. Among other treasures is the Roman shoemaker's workshop, all complete with tools, leather and sandals. Shoes are still made at Maintz, but, like Coblentz, it is a great center for the wine trade.

Strassburg, the capital of Alsace-Lorraine, is two miles from the Rhine, but connected with it by canals and the River Ill. It is a sort of junction between Germany and the trading and manufacturing places just over the borders in France and Switzerland, and has always been a busy and important place. Its history has been an eventful one, which has left many traces in its fine cathedral and public and private buildings. The Vosges Mountains are the western boundary of this upper part of the Rhine, and in its valleys are many ironworks, and weaving and other industries. Mulhausen is the most important manufacturing town in the province, with its iron foundries and engineering works. It also employs many people making cotton goods, chemicals and paper. It is on the canal joining the Rhine and the Rhône basins.

East of the Rhine, in Baden, lies the beautiful Black Forest. Here the peasants in their quaint little houses carve wood figures very artistically and also great numbers of cuckoo clocks. There are also many mines in the mountains, and industries of various kinds. Many visitors go to Baden to drink the mineral waters. The plain of Baden is very fertile.

THE DANUBE AND THE TOWNS ON ITS BANKS

From the Black Forest rises the mighty Danube; the upper part of its course lies in Würtemberg, a hilly agricultural country about the same size as Wales. At Ulm the Danube passes into the large kingdom of Bavaria, and upon it, or its tributaries, are many great cities.

There is Munich, the capital of Bavaria, on the Isar, the third largest city in the empire, which attracts the art-loving world to see its treasures of pictures and its museum collections, and also to hear its famous concerts.

Augsburg possesses abundant water power, obtained from canals crossing the town, which has given rise to industries such as weaving and cotton-spinning, and making machinery. In the past it was a center of traffic from the north of Europe to Italy and the eastern part of the Mediterranean; and its buildings, lasting till today, remind us of the rich citizens of the Middle Ages, and the money-lenders who helped such great sovereigns as Maximilian I and Charles V.

There is much that is interesting to be seen at Ratisbon, often called the key of the Danube, from its position; and fighting has often raged round it, from the times of the Romans right down to those of Napoleon Bonaparte.

Ludwig I, King of Bavaria, built, in the last century, a German temple of fame a few miles out of Ratisbon. It is built after the copy of the most beautiful of the Greek temples, the Parthenon at Athens, of gray marble. Over the north entrance is sculptured a representation of the battle won by Hermann over the Romans; on the south side, facing the Danube, is shown Germany regaining her liberty after the battle of Leipzig. Inside, running around the entire hall, is a frieze showing the history and life of the Germanic race before they were Christians. Over a hundred busts represent famous Germans who have helped to make history. That of William I was added in 1898. There are also tablets bearing the names of great men of whom no portrait exists, and some commemorate the work of those whose names, even, are unknown, such as the writer of the greatest early German poem and the architect of Cologne Cathedral.

THE TOWN THAT IS FAMOUS FOR ITS CHILDREN'S TOYS

Not far from Ratisbon is Nuremberg, a free city of the empire till 1806, since when it has belonged to Bavaria. Long ago it was a center of trade between Germany, Venice, and the East, and then the discovery of the sea route to India, round the Cape, took away much of its commerce and prosperity. It has very interesting old houses, like so many of these South German towns, and is full of reminders of the long wars, as well as of the wealth, importance and taste of a "City of the Empire." In modern times it became famous for the great numbers of toys that pass from its workshops to many parts of the world. Also it makes machinery and metal wares and lead pencils. We are nearing again the Ore Mountains, whence we set out on our tour to the various cities of Germany. In nearly all

these cities are fine old cathedrals, picturesque marketplaces and town halls, also universities, often dating back to the past. And everywhere are statues and war memorials, as in Berlin, linking the past with the present.

What numbers of different sorts of people we have passed on our road! Peasants in different states wear different costumes; and manners and customs and speech vary greatly. Germany is three and a half times larger than the State of New York, and there are more than sixty millions of people living in it.

The people of Germany and their religion

More than half that number of people live in Prussia. Many work in the fields and vineyards and beautifully kept forests, which cover a quarter of the country. Others are to be found in the mines and factories, yards and shops, in the ports and ships, in the Army, in the schools and universities.

We have heard the gay Rhinelanders singing of the glorious deeds of their past and the beauties of the country, as the soldiers marched, as the schoolgirls played in the woods, as the students tramped up and down the hills. In other parts of the country the people are graver or slower, according to the branch of the German family to which they belong. Some of the differences that have arisen in the past have been on account of religion. North Germany is chiefly Protestant; South Germany is mainly Roman Catholic. In the Rhineland are numbers professing both faiths. Many jealousies and dislikes have passed away under the influence of common aims and interests, and increased facilities for traveling about and mixing with each other, and the rise of more general education.

The schools to which the German children go

Germany has always paid great attention to matters of education, and today there are very few people unable to read and write. It was from Germany we learned largely how to make first lessons interesting to little children in the schools, and great pains are taken not only in elementary schools, but in higher grades, to make learning useful and attractive. The fees in the higher schools are so low that even poor people can send their children, and as it is very cheap to attend the universities, and there are so many of them, almost any student can take advantage of the highest education to be had. Then, great attention is paid to teaching the various trades under the best possible conditions, so that workers get a thorough training to fit them to earn their living. The Government has done its best to get the most useful subjects taught in schools, so that time should not be wasted, and to spread the knowledge of trades and industries, so as to encourage skilled workmen all over the empire.

Germany's possessions overseas

Before the present Emperor came to the throne, Germany had given little attention to extending her borders and finding new markets for the goods which she manufactured. At first travelers visited foreign parts, and traders from the old free cities followed them, setting up factories on the west and east coasts of Africa in places yet empty and ungoverned. A telegram from Bismarck, directing the German flag to be hoisted in certain of these places, thus taking the merchants under the empire's protection, was the beginning of German colonies. Later, large territories in various parts of Africa fell to Germany as well as

some of the beautiful islands of the Pacific, the Bismarck Archipelago off the north part of New Guinea, and a small territory in China.

When one follows the story of the development of the German Empire both within the country and over seas, industrially and intellectually, one is overwhelmed with a sense of tragedy that so great a nation should have had such a short sighted vision to plunge the world into a war which could leave the prospering German Empire impoverished and despised, deprived of its world trade and its extensive colonial possessions. And even this would be small compared to the loss of the respect of the whole world and its own millions of young men so fatuously sacrificed. Could a sadder ending come to a great story? No one can look into the future, but to us who stand at the crisis of the war it is difficult to see a single material advantage that can possibly come to Germany from the war. Her loss is her reward for allowing herself to be ruled by a feudal autocracy in the person of an impetuous and egotistical sovereign who had a mania for pageantry and self display. If the war with all its awful sacrifices may lead this benighted people into light, if it can remove forever from the pathway of civilization this great obstacle to individual human freedom, then the gigantic struggle will not have been in vain.

AN OLD CASTLE IN THE CITY OF MEERSBURG

RISE OF THE MODERN GERMAN EMPIRE

THE HISTORY of the present German Empire is largely the history of the rise of Prussia. Bismarck lifted Prussia from a second rate member of the German Confederation, which was dominated by Austria, to a first place among the German states and then formed around it a new nation—Germany, and made that nation one of the great powers of the world. Bismarck believed in autocracy, he believed in "blood and iron," in the "mailed fist." He achieved his success by war, deliberately planned, prepared for and efficiently carried out.

In 1862, Emperor William I, the grandfather of the present ruler, was struggling to get the Prussian Diet to grant him money to double the size of his army. He had been unsuccessful in this effort. He was about to give it up when as a final experiment he consented to invite into his ministry the then young reactionary leader, Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck's political ideas centered around his belief in the Prussian monarchy. It had been the Prussian kings, not the Prussian people that had made Prussia great. Bismarck believed in the king and disbelieved in the people. He also believed in war as a means of national progress. In the most famous speech of his life in 1863 he announced "Not by speeches and majority votes are the great questions of the day decided—but by 'blood and iron.'"

In 1863, Prussia and Austria went to war against Denmark and took the duchy of Lauenburg and the provinces of Schleswig and Holstein, in which the Kiel Canal and the German naval base is now. Austria was to administer Holstein and Prussia, Schleswig. Prussia paid Austria $1,800,000 for the duchy of Lauenburg. Bismarck approved this whole arrangement in spite of the fact that he thought it might lead to war with Austria. His "blood and iron" policy implied that a German nation under Prussian domination could come only after a war with Austria. There was not room in a German Confederation for both Austria and Prussia—"one or the other must bend." Within a year after the division of Schleswig-Holstein, Bismarck had obtained a promise from Napoleon III to remain neutral if Prussia attacked Austria. He also made a treaty with Italy providing that Italy would join Prussia in a war on Austria if Prussia began the war within three months, for the sake of reforms in the German Confederation. The enemy was thus isolated, and Prussia was prepared to use both "blood and iron."

Bismarck immediately and quite unexpectedly introduced into the Diet of Frankfort, the governing body of the German Confederation, a new plan for the federation of German states. With this as a background, to satisfy the Italian treaty, Bismarck picked a quarrel with Austria over its administration of Holstein, declared the old confederation dissolved, attacked Austria, and invited the other German states to do likewise. None of the other important states sided with Prussia. Four of them stood with Austria. But Prussia was prepared, trained and ready for war. In seven weeks Austria was defeated and soon after all Germany was at the mercy of the Prussians.

Prussia now annexed the kingdom of Hanover, four duchies and the free city of Frankfort, bringing under the Prussian king practically all the peoples and land along the north coast from the Russian border to the border of

GROWTH OF THE MODERN GERMAN EMPIRE

PRUSSIA UP TO 1863

The kingdom when Bismarck became Chancellor to King William I—A divided state, a member of the German Confederation which was dominated by Austria under Francis Joseph II, the present ruler.

PRUSSIA AT THE END OF 1864

The first "Blood and Iron" war in which Austria and Prussia took the Danish Province of Holstein and put it under Austrian administration and the Province of Schleswig which was put under Prussian administration.

AFTER THE PRUSSIAN-AUSTRIAN WAR

Bismarck's second "Blood and Iron" venture was to provoke a war with Austria, defeat that country at Sadowa in 1866, join the two parts of the Prussian kingdom, and enlarge it by territorial conquests.

AFTER THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

Bismarck's third experiment in "Blood and Iron" was to engineer a war with France, defeat its armies, take Alsace and Lorraine and create a new German empire with Prussia at its head.

Holland. There was no thought of having the people of these states vote on the question of annexation as had been done in Italy. They were annexed by the right of conquest on decrees issued from Berlin. Thus increased, Prussia became the leader in a new German Confederation which included all but four German states and from which Austria was excluded.

Bismarck's policy had triumphed. Prussia had humbled Austria and become the dominant power in Germany. Yet Germany was not united. The four southern states still were outside the Confederation. Bismarck believed a war between France and Prussia inevitable and, in his opinion it was desirable as the only way of completing the unification, since Napoleon III would never willingly consent to the extension of the Confederation to include the South German states. All that he desired was that it should come at precisely the right moment, when Prussia was entirely ready, and that it should come by act of France so that Prussia could pose before Europe as merely defending herself against a wanton aggressor. In his "Reminiscences" he avows that he entertained his belief as early as 1866. "That a war with France would succeed the war with Austria lay in the logic of history": and again, "I did not doubt that a Franco-German war must take place before the construction of a United Germany could be realized." The unification of Germany being his supreme aim, he was bound by logic and ambition to take advantage of that war when it occurred.

Everything was as Bismarck foresaw. The South German states joined Prussia. The French were defeated quickly and completely. In less than six months, after the opening gun was fired, on January 18, 1871, King William the First was crowned Emperor of a united Germany, the four southern states had joined the Empire, and Alsace and Lorraine had been annexed to Prussia.

In less than ten years Bismarck by "blood and iron," by shrewd diplomacy backed by the best trained army in Europe had turned a second rate German state into an Empire, a first-class power among the nations of the world.

Bismarck's use of "blood and iron" made Germany strong among the nations on the European continent. He recognized, however, that "blood and iron" was a policy to be used with great care. Before every one of the three wars in which he participated he was careful to do two things: (1) to isolate the country to be attacked by arrangements that would keep other nations from interfering with the war and (2), to be certain that his army was better prepared than that of the enemy.

This was the method that Bismarck employed to achieve the great ambition of his life—the unification of Germany.

The present Emperor inherited German militarism and German Imperialism, a belief in the divine right of kings, and the strength of the German Army. On his accession to the throne, in the speech he made to the army and navy three days before his speech to the people, he reiterated Bismarck's doctrine in these words:

"The soldier and the army, not parliamentary majorities, have welded together the German Empire. My confidence is placed on the army."

Emperor William's vision went further even than Bismarck's unification of Germany. "Our future is on the water," he announced. "The more the Germans go upon the water the better it will be for us." This announcement was in 1901. But the date of the first naval programme was 1893, three years after Bismarck's

retirement. The Kiel Canal was opened in 1895. In that same year Germany joined France and Russia in a demand upon Japan that it give up Port Arthur, which it had just taken from the Chinese. The interest of Russia and therefore of its ally, France, was plain enough. Russia wanted the port itself. Germany's interference seemed entirely uncalled for and provoked much resentment in Japan. This combination against Japan resulted in the Anglo-Japanese alliance which gave the Japanese fleet an excuse to attack the German eastern possessions as an ally of Great Britain.

In 1905, the Emperor in person landed in Morocco, where France felt it had particular claims. As a result of this visit the Sultan refused to accept the French programme and asked for a conference with representatives of the leading powers to advise him. M. Delcassé, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, protested that France would attend to the matter alone. The German Chancellor, Von Bülow, used threatening language. France gave up, M. Delcassé resigned.

In 1908 Austria took over Bosnia and Herzegovina. England and Russia protested that this was against the stipulations of the treaty of Berlin. Russia intimated that the annexation of Slav provinces might lead to its interference. The German Emperor responded with a threat of instant mobilization. Russia had not recovered from its Manchurian campaigns, and the Czar had to back down. Again German diplomacy was successful and another nation was given a grievance against Germany.

In 1909 an agreement was made with France concerning Morocco. All was seemingly satisfactory when on the first of July, 1911, the First Secretary of the German Embassy called upon the French Foreign Minister to inform him of Germany's decision to send a warship to Agadir. The cruiser *Panther* failed of her mission. France was not intimidated but the incident was fresh fuel to the French feeling against Germany.

In July, 1900, at the launching of the *Wittelsbach*, William II declared that the "ocean was indispensable to German greatness":

"The ocean teaches us that on its waves and on its most distant shores no great decision can any longer be taken without Germany and without the German Emperor. I do not think that it was in order to allow themselves to be excluded from big foreign affairs that thirty years ago our people led by their princes, conquered and shed their blood. Were the German people to let themselves be treated thus, it would be, and forever, the end of their world-power; and I do not mean that that shall ever cease, but rather I shall employ, in order to prevent it, the suitable means, if need be."

There is another belief which Emperor William inherited. It is exemplified in the speech he made in 1910, and has often been expressed since the beginning of the great war:

"Considering myself as the instrument of the Lord, without heeding the views and opinions of the day, I go my way."

Although historians and statesmen and the general reader had followed the history of the growth of the German Empire and had wondered at the expressions of beliefs and wishes on the part of the Emperor, few persons, if any, outside the German Empire really believed that there would be a great war. With the expansion of German industries and the general increase of German efficiency, no one supposed that the Empire could be so short-sighted as to go to war and jeopardize her trade and colonial possessions as well as the good will of the entire world. She had grown foolish

in her own conceit. And the world rested secure, believing in principles of international law and arbitration and an ever-widening circle of cooperation of labor and industry which it seemed would comprehend the civilized world.

The world outside of Germany did not know that the German teaching of the gospel of hate was so soon to bear its bitter fruit. Dreaming that all the hopes and promises were true, and that nothing could thwart her purposes she seized upon a trivial incident, the assassination of the Arch Duke Ferdinand of Austria, as a motive to support Austria in her arrogant demands upon Serbia for the punishment of the murderer and other terms which could not be accepted by any self-respecting nation. Serbia was willing to go more than half way in the acceptance of terms. Germany, in prodding Austria on, seemed to fear that the chance to make war would be lost and demanded an immediate acceptance. Evidence is abundant to show that every step taken by Austria was at the instigation of Germany. So war was declared. Austria was supported by Turkey and Germany. Serbia was backed by Russia, who in turn brought in France. The wanton invasion of Belgium brought in Great Britain, Japan, Italy and finally America. As nation after nation declared itself, the struggle soon became world-wide—on the one hand the Central Empire, Germany, Austria and Turkey, on the other hand Russia, France, Italy, Great Britain, Japan, and America.

At this time, the end is not in sight, but there can be but one conclusion to the conflict. The cause of liberty will prevail. The allied countries, provided with inexhaustible supplies and men, fighting with an indomitable belief that they are fighting for righteousness, will surely crush the militaristic imperalism of a misguided and cruel Prussianism. It is sad to think that a nation of such power should have been directed along ways of oppression and cruelty at a time when the world expects a greater humanitarianism and a larger proportion of human liberty.

THE STORIED RHINE

THERE is no river more beautiful or more fascinating than the Rhine. It possesses castles in hundreds, Alpine peaks and glaciers and snowfields, a lovely inland sea forty miles from shore to shore, a magnificent waterfall, and a thousand stories. It is older than the Nile, for it nourished mankind thousands of years ago. The earliest Rhinelander was recently found buried in forty-three feet of sand, and above him was another thirty-six feet of drifted dust. All of this earth had gradually accumulated by natural means in the course of ages.

Few other rivers have such a history. To understand the Rhine is to understand Europe, both ancient and modern. For two thousand years the Rhine has influenced the life of European nations. It is a river of romance and legend. Its wide green waters, flowing below castled crags and ancient towns, has been one of the great civilizing forces that have made Europe what it is. For two thousand years the Gaul and the Teuton have quarreled about the river that divides them. In the days before Jesus was born the Emperor Augustus of Rome tried to annex the Rhine to France. His ruined fortifications still stretch along the German hills beyond the great river. But the Teuton tribes gathered together in a great battle, overthrew the Roman legions, and preserved their liberty. Out of this great victory arose modern Britain, modern France and Spain, modern Germany, Italy, and Austria, for it led at last to the overthrow of the Roman Empire and the stormy foundation of modern Europe.

JOURNEY ALONG THE BEAUTIFUL AND HISTORIC RIVER

At first it is difficult to see in a trip down the Rhine, from its source in the Alps to its outflow into the sea in Holland, why it should have attracted conqueror after conqueror, from Augustus to Charlemagne, from Napoleon to Bismarck. Even on the Alpine heights, where the Rhine rises, the great German Emperor of the Middle Ages, Barbarossa, had planted a German colony. The land belonged to a Latin race, but the German conqueror put his own people there, and they flourished in their new home and kept their old language. They formed themselves into a little fighting republic, and dominated their Italian neighbors. The idea was to control the whole course of the Rhine from the North Sea to the Italian frontier, and keep the control in the hands of Germanic races. For the Rhine was the river of life; it fed Europe.

Today we have to call on our imagination to understand the importance of the Rhine in ancient times. Then there were practically no roads, goods were conveyed on pack-horses along lonely, dangerous, and difficult bridle-paths. Only at great expense, great labor, and peril could commerce be carried on through forests, heaths, and marshes. Each village was practically shut off from the rest of the world, and everything that people needed they produced or made themselves. There was little buying and selling, and no opportunity for ordinary folk to develop their minds by intercourse with the outer world. So, through a continent where everybody lived by custom and tradition, shut off from the stir of thought and the large movement of life, flowed the Rhine—the grand highway of civilization—with boats full of travelers, traders, and merchandise. Along the Rhine came the early missionaries from the British Isles, converting the people from Saxony to

PICTURE MAP OF THE RHINE

Showing the course of that famous river from the mountains of Switzerland to the sea in Holland

the borders of Austria. The town of Mayence has for its arms a wheel. It is the wheel of the son of an English wheelwright in Devonshire, who went in 716 to the continent to convert the German tribes. He settled at Mayence as Primate of Germany, and the town still uses his wheel in their coat-of-arms. A hundred years before he sailed the Rhine an Irishman went down the great river to the end of Switzerland, and converted the people there, and the town of St. Gall preserves his name and the memory of his remote retreat.

As civilization rebuilt Europe after the downfall of Rome, the Rhine became the main line of communication between the North and the South. In other places large commercial cities sprang up by the edge of the sea, where ships could ply from port to port. But the great towns of the Rhine had all the advantages of a seaport, without the risks of attack from Barbary pirates and other wild corsairs. So they have grown through the centuries into a line of cities of vital importance to the German people, until they have been able to rival the industrial supremacy of Great Britain and the United States. They have great coal-fields and iron-mines close at hand, and rich supplies of timber, and a broad, navigable river down which ocean steamers can sail for hundreds of miles.

The invention of modern roads and railways has not diminished the value of the Rhine, for the great waterway still remains the cheapest and most convenient means of transport from Rotterdam to Mayence. And beyond Mayence the great pines of the Black Forest sail down to the sea in the form of immense rafts, on which sometimes a little village of people lives. Even where the Rhine becomes at last a great waterfall, over which no boat can pass, it does not lose its value, for the power of the falling water is then turned into electricity, and sent along wires for many miles into the Black Forest, to drive machinery that cuts up the great trees, and turns them into tables and chairs and larger pieces of furniture.

The Rhine is, in fact, a kind of mighty Panama Canal hewn by the forces of Nature out of granite peaks and rocky tablelands. Behind it, feeding it and strengthening it and filling it, are the mighty glaciers of the Alps. It is an immense mountain torrent that grinds the peaks in its path to dust, and builds up Holland out of Switzerland and Germany. The rainfall makes little difference to it. In February-fill-dyke it remains at its shallowest. It does not rise till the summer sun begins to melt the ice and snow on the high Alps. Then it comes down in a flood, and the woodsmen of the Black Forest rejoice, and launch on the cold, swelling waters their great rafts of pines, that sail away to the edge of the North Sea and the saw-mills of Holland.

Man has tamed the mighty stream, but his victory is not secure, for the Rhine is a wild river, and often when it seems most placid and gentle it is really most dangerous. Sweet and soft is the song it sings as it ripples over rock and reed, and an old Rhenish legend tells us that there is a fatal charm in its music. On a wild, high rock above the deepest part of the stream, a fairy girl is supposed to sit sometimes in the light of the setting sun. Decked with jewels, she combs her golden hair with a golden comb and sings a song of unearthly beauty. Woe to the boatman who listens to the wonderful melody! Fascinated by her song he sees not the rocks before him, he only looks above and as he is drawn upon the rocks he is engulfed, both himself and his boat. This is the wicked fairy the Lorelei; the spirit of the Rhine.

BINGEN ON THE RHINE—THE CITY OF THE WELL-KNOWN SONG BY CAROLINE E. NORTON

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THE WILD LORELEI ROCK OF THE RHINE, WHERE AN EVIL FAIRY IS SAID TO SIT IN THE SETTING SUN, DRAWING MEN AND BOATS TO THEIR DOOM

In the most rugged part of Switzerland is a land of high-lying pastoral valleys, peopled by a race of hardy herdsmen who are cut off by mountains from the Austrians and the rest of the Swiss. Around them is a wall of glittering peaks on which the snow never melts, and most of the passes that lead to other countries are from 6000 to 7000 feet high. Such is the land of the Gray Leaguers—a fighting race of peasants, who rose in the Middle Ages against their lords, won their freedom, and leagued themselves together into a little republic.

The Gray Leaguers remained independent until the nineteenth century, when they entered into alliance with the Swiss Confederation and their country, known as the Grisons, now forms a canton of Switzerland. Some of the Gray Leaguers speak Italian and some German, and some an old dialect of the country; they have no wealth but their pastures and their forests. Recently, however, their wild, beautiful, and sublime mountain land has become a pleasure and health resort for the tired and sick people of the European plains. A tiny railway has been made through the valleys, and many thousands of people come here, in summer and in winter, to ski and toboggan and skate in the clear, fine air of the uplands, or to climb over the glaciers, snowfields, and peaks at the other side of which Italy lies, with long, sloping woods of chestnuts and walnuts and valleys covered with vines.

It is hard to say which of the mountains of the Gray Leaguers is the Rhine head. There are 200 mountain streams in the country which unite to form the great river. But the Gray Leaguers themselves regard as the head stream the torrent that flows from an ice cavern at the end of the Zapport glacier below the Rhinewaldhorn. This Alp stands over 11,000 feet in the sky, and is crowned with eternal snows. At its foot is a terrible and gloomy gorge—a wilderness of ice and rock.

The peasants call the place Hell, and in the midst of it is a patch of greenery known as Paradise. Thick with the mud of the glacier, the Rhine screams and whitens through Hell and Paradise, and flows into an open valley, and again falls in thundering foam. Then, strengthened by other mountain torrents, it swirls, green as an emerald, through the Bad Way. The Bad Way is one of the most remarkable sights in the world. Here the stream is only a few feet wide, and opposed to it is a mountain of black slate; yet, using the mud of the glaciers as a grinding powder, the Rhine has cut clear through the slate to the enormous depth of 1600 feet, leaving the tops of the black cliffs in places less then ten yards apart.

The extraordinary power of a tiny stream of flowing water is the thing that most strikes one while following the Rhine to its mountain home. Vast and ancient masses of rock, which the glaciers of the Great Ice Age only scratched, have been seamed and channeled and torn up into wide valleys by a trickle of water from the sun-warmed fields of ice and snow. Men have found, almost on the mountain peaks, lines of pebbles left by the Rhine when it was seeking a road into the valleys. There are deep passes in the country which the little river made and then abandoned. It has tunneled through mountains, and tumbled them in a wild heap of ruins into the valleys.

It is at Ragatz that all the glacier streams gather together in the broad, green torrent known from prehistoric times by the name of Rhine. Thence it flows northward for thirty miles to the Lake of Constance, cutting its way through the Swiss and Austrian

Alps, forming a wide, rich valley, which it has carpeted with soil and made extremely fertile. Unfortunately, it still continues to cover the bare rock with mountain mud, so that its bed rises and has to be banked up above the plain. When the glaciers melt, and the floods come down in May and June, there is always a danger that the Rhine will take back what it gave, and leap out of its bed and drown the rich and smiling valley. So the towns stand away from the river, and, like Feldkirch and Dornbirn on the Austrian side, and Altstatten on the Swiss bank, they keep to the foothills, where no flood can hurt them.

The Rhine is a river with a long memory. Some millions of years ago it did not flow into the broad, fair Lake of Constance, but turned aside four miles north of Ragatz and flowed through the Lake of Zurich, making a path that is used by the railway to Vienna. A mound now blocks the river, and the little town and castle of Sargans are built on the rising ground. But the Rhine remembers; and in recent times dykes have had to be hastily erected at Sargans to prevent the river, in a raging high flood, from sweeping down its ancient track and overwhelming the central regions of Switzerland.

Happily the hand of man has restrained the wild river ever since the dawn of civilization, and kept it to its course towards the large and lovely Lake of Constance. The result is that none of the Alpine lakes is so historically interesting and so important today as the great sheet of water by the town of Constance. It is forty miles long and ten miles wide and it tempers the climate of the lands around and makes them sweet and delightful. It lies 1300 feet above the sea, a long, bright, emerald stretch of water, engirt by a ring of orchards and sunny pastures and vineyards. The peasants are rich, especially on the Swiss shores, and renowned for their bravery on the battlefield. It is over 400 years ago since a little band of them smote the army of their overlord, the Hapsburg of Austria, and won the freedom they still keep. The descendants of these people are the best lacemakers and the most interesting men in Switzerland. It was they who won the great battle for freedom, and their passion for liberty survived in the wars of religion that followed the Reformation. The men of the higher mountain passes remained Catholics, while those nearer the valley adopted the reformed faith. The two split up into separate republics, the Outer Rhoden and the Inner Rhoden, and these old forms of government still continue. Every citizen is a member of the parliament for local affairs, and in Outer Rhoden 10,000 men assemble every year, in April, to make laws for the community. They come armed with swords to remind them of the days when freedom was not a matter of course but a thing for which men had to give their lives. When their chief is elected, his first duty is to bind himself by an oath to obey the laws of the commonwealth. His second duty is to administer to the vast multitude before him the same oath by which he has just bound himself. To hear the voice of 10,000 freemen pledging to obey the laws they have made is a moving and solemn thing. And it is inspiring to find that this race of mountaineers, that keeps to the most ancient way of popular law-making, has continually grown in numbers and prosperity. In their village church are the flags they have won in many battles—flags from Venice and Genoa, from cities in Germany and towns in Austria.

It was not until all the might of

Spain and Austria was brought against them, in the wars of religion of the sixteenth century, that the free Swiss peasants lost control of the Upper Rhine by losing the bridge town of Constance that sits in beauty by the green waters of the great lake. Constance is now a patch of alien territory in the mountain land of freedom, and the Grand Duke of Baden-Baden owns it. But its beautiful old buildings recall its glorious past, when it was a free town of the Swiss alliance, guarding the waterway and passes from Northern Europe to Rome. It has many connections with England. It was here that wandering Irish monks sowed the seeds of civilization, and founded abbeys and cities all down the river and along the mountain valleys on the old path to Rome. Later on, Wyclif's follower, John Huss, came to preach at Constance the doctrines of the early Reformation; the great hall still stands in which he was condemned to death by a conclave of cardinals; and close at hand is the place where he was burned.

In compensation, as it were, for the loss of Constance, the Swiss possess the old town of Schaffhausen, on the German bank of the Rhine. For a long time the Swiss did not seem to have the best of the situation, for just below Schaffhausen all navigation is stopped by the Jura Mountains. A line of limestone rocks crosses the river and forms a great waterfall seventy feet in height. The Rhine makes a wild and splendid struggle of it, cascading down in green, thundering curves and glittering clouds of foam. The shock of its fury stuns the ear and terrifies the mind.

But on closely studying the wild and picturesque waterfall we see that old Father Rhine has become a poor, feeble creature with a great deal of bluster and very little force. Here is a mere bit of soft limestone that he should long since have ground into a level bed. Both in Switzerland at the present time and in Germany of old he has broken through granite peaks and hard, high tablelands of rock; he has splintered the Vosges Mountains from the Black Forest, and has carved a great level plain between them. Yet at the Rhine Falls he cannot wash away the bit of soft limestone that divides his torrent and towers above the foam and fury of his broken waters.

The explanation is that Father Rhine has been tamed by the deep, still lake of Constance. He has dropped in the lake the granite sand from the Alps which he once used like emery powder to grind down the rocks over which he flowed. Moreover, the great lake has robbed him of his wild torrent force, and taken all his shattering, leaping strength away from him. But the Swiss have grown to be thankful that the river cannot eat away the limestone crags, for the waterfall has become the mother of many industries, and Schaffhausen flourishes exceedingly on its electrical power, while the valleys of the Black Forest hum for hundreds of miles with the tremendous machinery driven by Father Rhine.

Below the city of electricity the river recovers his old strength. Taking the waters of the Aar, he drains the immense glaciers and snowfields of central Switzerland, and becomes a stream of continental importance. Wide, strong, and swift, he goes under the bridges of the ancient town of Basel—a famous city at the head of the boat navigation of the river, forming the gateway into Switzerland.

The valley of the Rhine beyond Basel is very remarkable. It is carved out of a single slab of granite as big as a province, and the glacier-fed stream has made a level path twenty

miles in breadth between the dark granite fronts of the Vosges and the Black Forest. But all the towns, like Mulhausen and Strassburg, stand some miles away from the river, because of the danger of floods. The river valley here forms the old frontier between France and Germany, which will probably be re-established after the present war. The towns have suffered terribly in old and recent battles.

The Rhine is a river of tears. Its romance is born of the fiercest passions of men, of cruel and hateful things, now seen in the moonlight of the past, veiled and softened by the mist of ages. For it was so glorious a possession that greedy, ambitious men continually fought and intrigued and betrayed to win a place of power on it. Save where the people of some town were so roused by oppression that they turned on their tyrant—bishop, lord, or prince—and won their freedom, the story of the Rhine is a story of sorrow.

Its bustling modern towns are cheerful enough. For instance, there is Mannheim, above Strassburg, built in straight streets with numbers instead of names, like some American city, humming with commerce and industry. And the new parts of Frankfort and Cologne wear the same air of comfort and business. They represent the spirit of modern Germany. There are many fine qualities in this spirit; but the great soul of the Germanic races is something larger and stronger, and when true liberty comes to all the German people they will do still nobler things for civilization. At present Germany is still in the feudal ages in matters of government, in spite of its achievements in science and in industry.

Above Mannheim, the Rhine flows past the old towns of Worms and Mayence, which united together in the thirteenth century and brought about the league of the free cities of the Rhine. Out of the freedom they won came great events. At Worms it was that Luther explained his principles of the reformation of religion before Emperor and princes, ending with the fiery words: "Here I stand. I can not act otherwise. God help me! Amen." And before Luther arrived on the Rhine, Gutenburg, a son of Mayence, invented the book printed with movable type—the great instrument for spreading knowledge, by means of which our civilization develops. Farther on in the basin of the Rhine is the town of Dortmund, where lived the monk known as Berthold Schwarz, or Black Berthold, who experimented in chemistry in 1320, and brought gunpowder and guns into practical use.

These are some of the achievements of the Rhinelanders in the days of their ancient liberty. The Black Monk's terrible gift to mankind may not seem to have improved things, but gunpowder has blown up most of the castles in the Rhine valley. It is extraordinary how thick they cluster, these ancient strongholds, upon the rocks where the Rhine narrows in the beautiful gorge above Mayence, from Bingen almost to Bonn. In some cases the picturesque gray ruins were built by robber knights in order to take toll from all traders and travelers using the great waterway. They were little more than the haunts of land pirates, eager to impede and check commerce in order to enrich themselves; and though the castles now look very romantic perched on the wooded heights above the broad, green stream, it is well for mankind that they were at last blown up by gunpowder and left to moulder on the rock. It is here that the Rhine is a river of many legends, but they are strange and sad and tragical.

This part of the stream has a

AT HEIDELBERG, SHOWING HEIDELBERG CASTLE AGAINST THE MOUNTAIN FORESTS

THE RHINE AT COLOGNE, WITH THE CATHEDRAL IN THE BACKGROUND

wonderful natural wealth. Patches of the hillside of the size of quite a small farm, say fifty-five acres, produce in good years an income of $20,000. For the valley is one of the great vineyards of the world, and by careful and incessant toil the peasants keep the soil fertile, and bank it up in walled terraces on the sunny slopes of the hills. It is a wonderful sight, the grape valley of the Rhine, with its ruined castles, its wooded mountain tops, and the vineyards forming a sort of green patchwork quilt all down the steep slopes of the emerald river.

But above Bonn the mountains fall away from the stream, and the Rhine loses its romantic beauty and becomes a wide turbid, useful waterway, crowded with steamers, tugs, and rafts, and long, big barges full of every kind of merchandise. At Cologne it is quite an ugly river, with a line of factories on one bank and one of the beautiful cathedrals in the world on the other. But even the great cathedral of Cologne, and its other old buildings, cannot for long attract the traveler, for the city itself has grown commonplace, and noisy, and stifling.

Far more beautiful is the town of Dusseldorf, farther down the Rhine. It is a modern city, gay with trees and flowers, and some of its newest buildings are works of art which will very soon attract the attention of enlightened men of other countries. German architects, as in America, have developed a sound way of building great edifices out of concrete and their work has a historic interest and a considerable beauty of its own. Within the next fifty years it may transform the appearance of the busy, populous, industrial cities that crowd around the coalfields of Westphalia, which the Rhine drains on its way to Holland. These cities stretch from Dusseldorf to Hamm, and are growing into a single expanse of houses, fifty miles long and twenty broad!

The Dutch part of the Rhine is uninteresting at first glance, but very attractive when we come to study it. The land for the most part is flat, but its windmills and red-roofed towns and villages, and its moist meadows thronged with little black-and-white cows, form a series of pictures with a quiet, subdued charm.

But it is the strange adventures of the Rhine that chiefly interest the seeing eye. It cannot get to the sea quickly enough, and it breaks away in all directions. A trickle of water goes north into the Zuyder Zee; it seems of no importance, but it is in reality the ancient Rhine keeping to his old path towards Norway. Then there is another Rhine, still known on the map as the Old Rhine, that ends in a small black pool some way from the ocean, at the junction of the Leyden Canal.

It is a piteous ending for the glorious stream that has carved its way through the mountains of Switzerland and Germany, and brought wealth and civilization and power to many races of men. But the fact is that in Holland the Rhine is overcome by its own work. In the course of ages it turned a low, barren waste of sea sand into one of the most fertile soils in Europe, by carrying to it a part of Switzerland and Germany.

GENERAL VIEW OF JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES

Jerusalem during the Roman Period.

Relief Map of Palestine.

THE RIVER JORDAN

The Jordan is a somewhat turbid stream lined on both sides quite extensively with willow trees

THE HOMELAND OF JESUS

LIFE IN THE HOLY LAND IN STORY AND PICTURE

IT is daybreak, the seventh we have seen on the Mediterranean since we left Marseilles on our way eastward. We can just make out, in the dazzling glory of the sun's rays, the faint outline of the country we have come to see.

It is a little country, one-half the size of West Virginia, but there is much to see in it, so long is its story, thousands of years long, so full is its story, full of the most unforgetable things that have ever happened in the world.

There is no spot in the world which is universally so revered as Palestine. Jerusalem is holy to the Mohammedans next to Mecca. It is holy to the Jews above all other places, and also to the Christians, for its connection with the life of Christ. Its history, and especially that of Jerusalem, is filled with the important features found in the history of these three religions.

Our landing-place is Jaffa, and here we get our first view of an Eastern town. Such a confusion of strange-looking faces and costumes; camels striding along the streets; numbers of donkeys and their boys; mean-looking houses, much dirt, and many beggars—all this passes before our dazzled eyes as we make for the railway station, crossing one of the most ancient roads in the world, by the sea-plain, leading from the Nile to the upper part of the Euphrates.

We have a three hours' journey before us, though the distance is only as far as from Chicago to Joliet. First through orange and lemon groves—where grow the famous Jaffa oranges, then across a plain famous through the ages for the beauty of its wild flowers, then winding among low hills, past shepherd boys with their sheep and goats, past mud villages set in fields of yellow, brown, and green. The train begins to mount as the trains do up the heights of Switzerland, and from the open platform we enjoy the growing grandeur of the view, backwards over the Mediterranean, forward

to the heights above, as we climb to the great central ridge that forms the heart of Palestine.

Soon our train runs into the terminus and amid the bustle of porters and luggage, and finding a carriage to take us to our hotel, we look up and read on the station wall JERUSALEM.

As we leave the train it is hard to imagine that at last we have arrived at the Holy City. All that we see about us are stone walls and barren fields; there is nothing of particular interest.

We take a carriage and drive about one mile over a winding road finally crossing a little valley near a large pool of water, and we approach the Joppa Gate, severe and forbidding appearing. This gate occupies the position of Herod's palace and castle, and in fact, the large tower which we see before us is a part of his tower called Hippicus in the Bible.

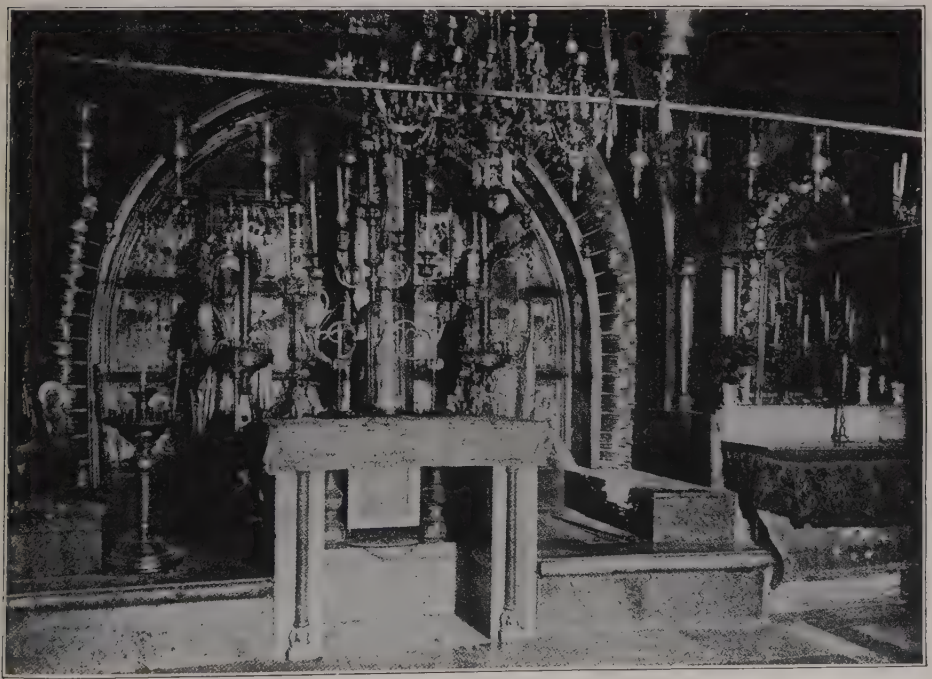
We have possibly thought of Jerusalem as comparatively level but now that we have arrived there, we find the city perched upon a number of hill-tops, on the very crest of the Mountains of Judea, with the hills rolling away to the West toward the Mediterranean and on the east to the Dead Sea and the Plain of the Jordan.

As we go up to the Joppa Gate we find that we are actually going "up" and it brings us to the realization that the words "go up" used so frequently in the Bible, were not really a set form but implied some actual climbing such as we are performing ourselves.

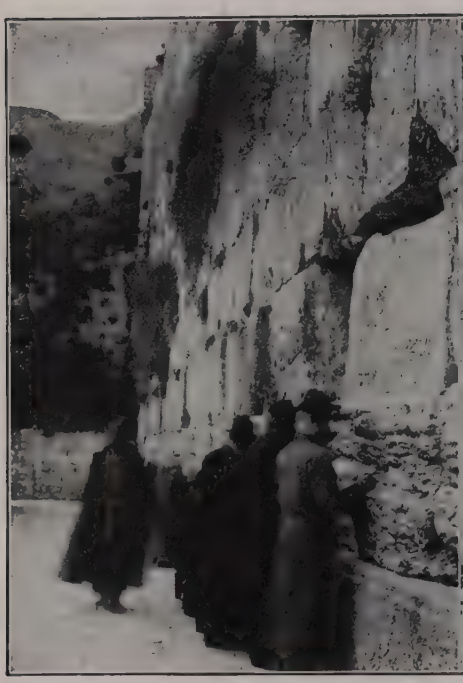
We enter the Joppa Gate and find ourselves right at the center of the western side of the walled city. We start along David Street one of the ancient highways of the town, and turning soon, on the left, into a little coffee-house. We look out of the back window on the Pool of Hezekiah, or Pool of the Patriarchs, one of the landmarks throughout Biblical times. We see it only as a stagnant pool with water covering half of the bottom; but at times it contains quite a good deal of water as it is fed by an aqueduct through which water was originally carried, in Christ's time, some thirty miles along the winding slopes of the ridges from south of Bethlehem. Leaving the coffee-house after having taken a cup of the Turkish beverage, we proceed a little farther to the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, covering the spot where more blood has been shed for the sake of religion than any other one place in the world.

This church occupies the traditional site of Mt. Calvary but according to authorities there is no foundation for this location. St. Helena, the mother of Constantine, "discovered" it in a dream some three centuries after the death of Christ. It is a large structure hemmed in on all sides by buildings and has a number of different chapels situated about the center one in which is located the Holy Sepulcher. These chapels are divided among the different Christian sects—the Armenians, the Syrians, the Russian Catholics, the Roman Catholics and the Coptics. As we enter the doorway we wonder at the Mohammedan guards stationed there but when we inquire as to the reason for their presence we find that they are an absolute necessity to keep the different Christian sects from fighting among themselves over two or three minutes' time for one service or another. It is no wonder the Mohammedans look with scorn upon the Christians when at the spot which is the very source of Christianity a condition so sordid should exist. This fact is also impressed upon us when we visit the manger at Bethlehem and find two Turkish soldiers standing one on either side with muskets in their hands. The Church of the Holy Sepulcher is the goal of the more or

A Jewish funeral on the slope of the Mount of Olives where all the Jews expect to meet at the resurrection on the Judgment Day. The monument with the conical top in the center of the picture they regard as the tomb of Absalom.



Mondern Calvary in the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, Jersualem, on which are now two altars and the last "Stations of the Cross." The altars belong to the Greek and Latin Churches. A hole in the wall between them shows the natural rock on which they have been placed.



Wailing place of the Jews. Entrance to the Temple area is forbidden the Jews by the Mohammedans. They assemble outside, wailing and reading from their sacred books.

Church of the Holy Sepulcher. This is a fine example of Norman Gothic building. It is the only part of the church visible from the outside. Note the Mohammedan door keepers.

VIA DOLOROSO

This is a portion of the place pointed out to the pilgrims as the way along which Christ struggled carrying his cross.

GARDEN OF GETHSEMANE

This is the Olive Tree which is pointed out as being the one under which Christ prayed in his agony.

less fanatical Eastern Christians such as the Russians and the Armenians. To us of the Western Hemisphere, on account of our better enlightenment, the delusions indulged in become more and more apparent as we walk about the Church. First we are shown the slab of marble upon which Christ lay when He was anointed for burial; then a round tablet of marble where the Virgin Mary stood watching Him; in a chapel at the side is shown us a post to which Christ was fastened when he was being scourged. Farther around we come to a chapel called Calvary, supposed by the pilgrims to be the actual site of the cross. Descending a flight of steps immediately below this altar we are shown the spot where Adam's skull and bones were found; and descending a little farther we are shown the spot where the cross itself was located by St. Helena.

THE HOLY SEPULCHER

The Holy Sepulcher itself is a large structure some thirty feet square, situated in the middle of the rotunda beneath the dome. It is built of marble and carved wood and hung with innumerable golden lamps. The entrance is very small and on reaching the inside we find nothing but gold and marble on all sides of us. There is nothing about us whatever to suggest a tomb built into the rocky side of a hill, a tomb in front of the door of which was a large stone to be rolled away; and it is only to the peasant pilgrims before mentioned that these remains appear authentic. So, leaving the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, we start up the Via Doloroso or Sorrowful Way, a combination of streets leading from the Church of the Holy Sepulcher to the site of Antonia or traditional residence of Pilate, ending at an arch stretching across the street which is called the "Ecce Homo" Arch. On the way we also see the Stations of the Cross noted on the wall at various intervals denoting the events in Christ's trip from Pilate to the Cross. But about half way along the Via Doloroso we turn to the north and leave it descending a street so steep that it is merely steps in some places; and so we find ourselves coming out of the Damascus gate at the center of the North Wall of the City. We are now approaching the spot supposed to be the actual site of the Crucifixion.

We know from the Bible that this event took place without the walls and inasmuch as the walls at the time of Christ occupied essentially the same location as they do today, we turn to this location as being the more authentic of the two. We find Mt. Calvary to be a hill occupied by a Mohammedan graveyard and wholly separated by a valley some three hundred feet wide, from the city wall, which valley has been cut through both for building material and for strengthening the walls of the city. Turning to our left we go down into an underground quarry known to the Mohammedans as the "Cotton Grotto" but in reality the royal quarry. It is from this quarry that the rock was taken to build the temples of Solomon and Herod and it is still easy to see the niches left by the masons in the spots where they placed their lamps while they chiseled out the immense blocks of limestone. Coming back we cross this valley to the hill known as Calvary, at the foot of which we find a little garden and in the middle of it a doorway leading into a small single chamber carved out of the solid rock. This is believed to be the tomb in which Christ was actually laid, and in the back of it is a stone sarcophagus which is the tomb itself and is pointed out as the probable resting place of our Lord's body. Leaving Calvary, we return to the Via Doloroso and proceed to the Ecce

SHEPHERD AND HERD

The mountains in the background are comparatively near but as this picture is taken about 1300 feet below sea level the air is so dense as to obstruct vision at a distance.

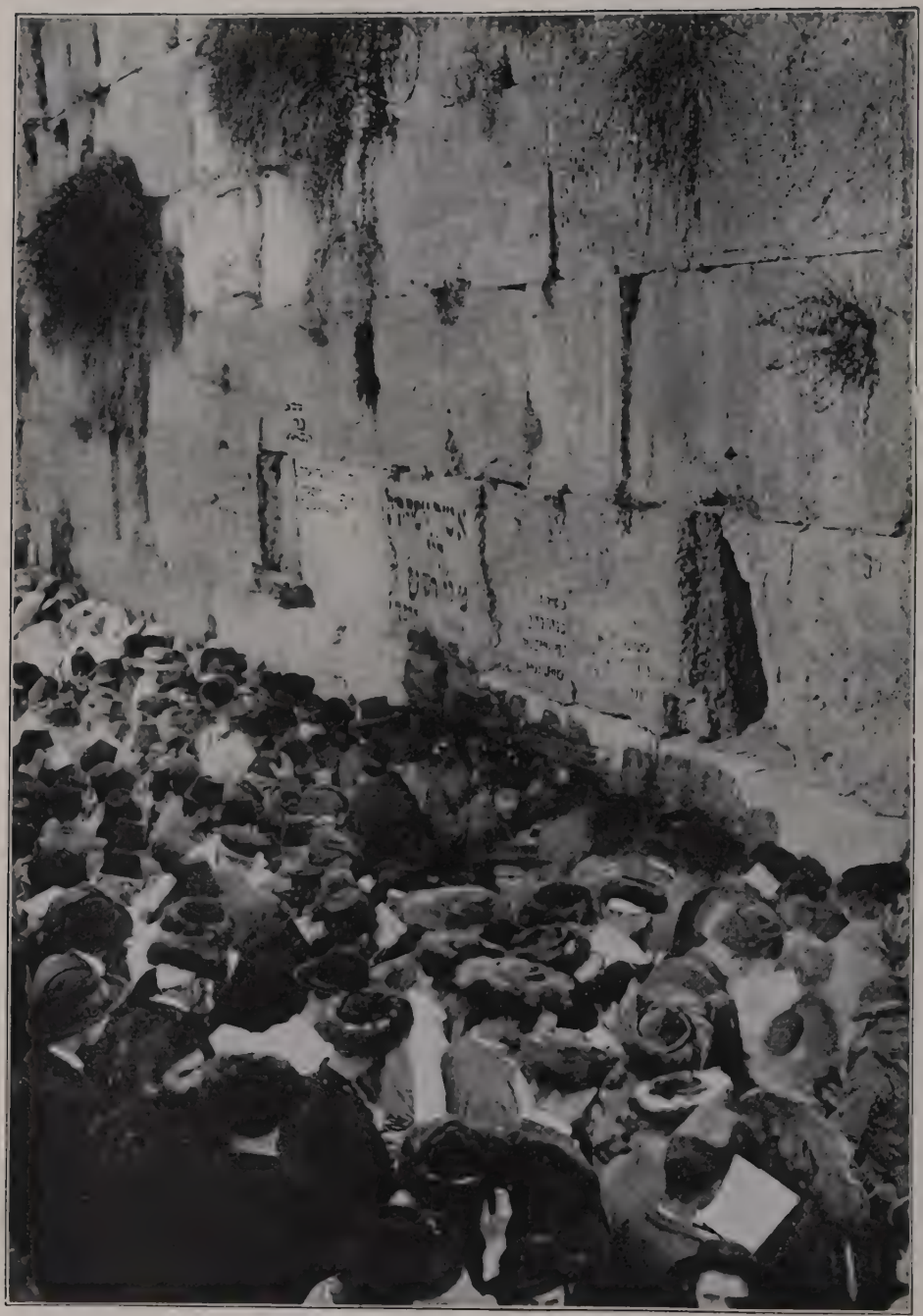
This picture is looking from the front door of the ElAksa to the north towards the Sacred Rock

KING SOLOMON'S STABLES

This massive vaulted structure was actually used by the Crusaders as a stable.

READING THE LAW

On the forehead of the Rabbi is bound a phylactery and over his head the tallith with fringes, following literally the directions of the Law of Moses respecting the Word of God. All devout Jews follow this custom from the age of twelve years when a Jew becomes a son of the Law and capable of taking part in the synagogue service.



THE WAILING PLACE OF THE JEWS

The Wailing Place of the Jews, Jerusalem, where for many centuries pious Jews have wept over the stones of their lost inheritance. The lower courses of this sixty foot wall are the work of the masons of Herod the King. On all the days of the week Jews may be found at their devotions on this spot. It is, however, on Friday afternoons and on the eve of fast or feast as shown in the picture, that they assemble here in great numbers.

Homo Arch, at the site of the speaking of those words of Pilate, *Ecce Homo*, (behold the man), when he showed Christ to the multitude. We stand at the northwest corner of that area so sacred to the Mohammedan—the Haram Esh Sheriff or Noble Sanctuary the site of the threshing floor of Onan; of Solomon's, and Herod's temples, the location of the Templum Domini, the Home Church of the Crusaders and the present location of the Kubbet es Sakrah or Dome of the Rock, sometimes incorrectly called the Mosque of Omar, supposed to be the most beautiful building in the world.

THE DOME OF THE ROCK

This is an octagonal building about 150 feet in diameter, situated over an irregularly shaped rock which was the sacrificial altar of the ancient Hebrew Temples of Solomon and Herod. The building is a marvelous example of mosaic and tile work; it contains a number of Corinthian columns brought from different countries, few of them alike. The windows are of stained glass of most beautiful coloring. Next to Mecca this building is most sacred to the Mohammedans on account of its association with the night trip of Mohammed to Jerusalem. It was built about seven hundred years after Christ by the Caliph Omar. It is a shrine and not a mosque and is intended merely as a protection for the sacred rock underneath it. There is, however, in connection with it a mosque situated at the further end of this Temple Area known as the El Aksa which was formerly a Christian church built by Justinian. At the southeast corner of this Temple Area—a spot where the wall is 120 feet high—there is a large subterranean chamber known as King Solomon's Stables. This is the actual place used by the Crusaders for tethering their horses at the time when they occupied Jerusalem and protected the Christian Pilgrims from the attacks of the Saracens. The Temple Area has also underneath it a large number of subterranean cisterns and passages of which some are explored; others are unexplored owing to the sacredness of this spot from a Mohammedan viewpoint. One underground tank which is fed, and has been, for probably three thousand years, by an aqueduct some forty miles in length coming from South Bethlehem, holds when it is full something like a million gallons of water. The water supply of ancient Jerusalem was not an insignificant matter inasmuch as the city was perched on the tops of the hills, but with this tremendous amount of water stored away the city could withstand a siege for a long time. On going back to the Ecce Homo Arch we turn east toward the Mount of Olives, appearing far in the distance and so we come out through the gate named after St. Stephen on account of its being the place of his stoning and we find ourselves on the edge of the valley of the Kedron with the Mount of Olives directly opposite us and the traditional Garden of Gethsemane, in the bottom of the valley. This little garden is maintained by Franciscan Monks and the traditional olive tree under which Christ prayed is pointed out to the traveler. It is evident from the knotted and gnarled appearance of these trees that they are very old. On ascending the Mount of Olives we see the principal landmark the Russian Hospice with its high tower, a building for the accommodation of Russian pilgrims. One other point of interest which is always brought to the attention of the traveler is Christ's footprint supposedly made by Him when He sprang from the earth and ascended into heaven. It is an irregular mark about two feet long like the print of a giant foot and is covered at present

A CHRISTMAS PROCESSION IN BETHLEHEM

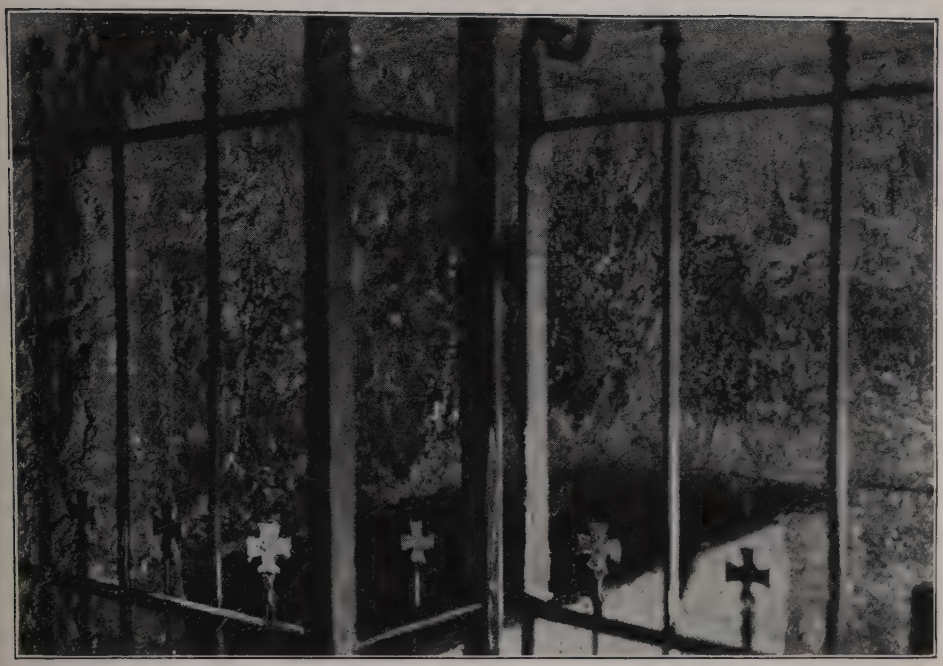
The members of the Latin community are seen returning to the Church of the Nativity. This season is marked by unusual crowds who throng the church and fill the streets and its celebration is attended by all the notable ecclesiastics in the country.

by a little chapel. As we stand on the Mount of Olives we look out across the wilderness of the Dead Sea, some five thousand feet below us with the rapidly falling away steep, barren sides, beneath us. This wilderness of Judea is indeed a wilderness just as it was in ancient times.

Next day comes our visit to Bethlehem. It is an easy drive, five miles to the south of Jerusalem. The Field of the Shepherds attracts us first, we only wish we could have been in them at night, under the brilliant starlit sky. As it is, we enjoy the sunshine on the fields where Ruth gleaned after the reapers of Boaz, on the shining white buildings of the little city standing out against the blue sky, on the broad plain stretching to the Dead Sea, with the purple mountains of Moab gleaming in the distance.

Foremost among the sights of Bethlehem stands out the large and simple Church of the Nativity, whose building was begun about one thousand, six hundred years ago over the spot where Christ was born. As we approach the church it appears to us like a veritable fortress and such it was indeed when it was constructed, as it was designed to withstand the attacks of the Saracens and hostile hordes who constantly menaced the Christians.

The little inn in which Mary and Joseph sought shelter was on the old caravan route, and no doubt the stable to which they were turned was in a rocky cave close by, as many inn stables are seen today. The rocky cave stable said to be the one is now a shrine lined with marble, lighted by lamps burning night and day, supplied by the different churches that have



THE SUPPOSED BIRTHPLACE OF CHRIST

An iron grating has been built in across the rock in order to protect it from too ardent Christians.

The silver star on the floor marks the birthplace of Christ and this is believed to be the only authentically located point connected with the life of Christ.

shares in the various parts of the building. We stoop to read the inscription round the silver star on the floor: "Here Jesus Christ was born of the Virgin Mary."

Turkish soldiers keep guard, as in Jerusalem, to prevent the followers of the Prince of Peace flying at each others' throats over a few inches of a wall or altar. It has been said that more than once the question of the opening or shutting of a door in the churches and convents that have clustered round the ancient church has well-nigh involved Europe in war!

Our next pilgrimage takes us farther afield from Jerusalem, two days' traveling in a carriage, some of it over very rough roads. We start early, out by the Damascus Gate, winding past the Garden Tomb, across the brook Kedron, past the Garden of Gethsemane to the slopes of Olivet. Jerusalem looks lovely in the morning sun, over the steep valley dotted with Jewish graves. Above the striking city walls we see the greenish luster of the wonderful dome built over the Temple site, and the towers and spires all crowded against the sky. Bethany is close at hand in a hollow. The supposed sites of the tomb of Lazarus and the home of Mary and Martha are shown in the village, but we are content to stand on the edge of the hollow, and imagine ourselves gazing with Mary down the mountain, watching and longing for her Friend in her sore trouble. The view onwards is fine, in the clear, bright air; was it here that the words were spoken, "I am the Resurrection and the Life," the words still echoing down the years to comfort those who have lost their dear ones?

And now we go down, down, to the Jordan valley, by zigzag roads as in Swiss mountain passes. It is a steep drop from the heights of Jerusalem, and we get many views of the wonderful deep valley in which the Jordan winds on its way from the Sea of Galilee to the Dead Sea. The distance between the seas, as the crow flies, is only seventy miles, but so great are the windings of the Jordan that its course is nearly three times as long. There is a beautiful harmony between the green of the willows and rushes that border the river and the blue of the calm Dead Sea. It is a hot, rough journey as we near the sea, over a mere track among little mounds of mud and low scrubby bushes, that serve as food for camels.

Greatly do we enjoy a rest on the pebbly beach, and still more a bathe in the far-famed salt water, several times salter than the ocean. This saltness is realized when we get a drop in our eyes or mouth. We feel ourselves so light in the Dead Sea that we simply stand upright when out of our depth and tread water. We find it best to swim on our backs, as it is not easy to keep our arms and legs under water.

Invigorating as it is, we are glad of a dip later in the fresh water of the Jordan to wash off the salt that has dried on our skin. We lunch under the green trees by the river, and listen to the stories of our guide about the thousands of pilgrims, chiefly Russians, who come to bathe in the waters of Jordan, the river crossed by the children of Israel on their way to the Promised Land; the river in which John baptized his Master. We seem to see the happy, merry folk, so simple and kindly, so enthusiastic about all they see and hear. They carry away the garments wetted by Jordan water, and keep them to be buried in, for this pilgrimage is the event of their lives.

We spend the night at Jericho, the lowest inhabited spot in the world. Nearly all the course of the Jordan is below the level of the sea; the surface

The Samaritan Passover on Mount Gerizim is still kept according to the manner recorded in Exodus XII. This illustration represents the tents of the Samaritans where they spend the time required for the ceremony on the mountain above their homes in the city of Nablus.

THE FEAST OF TABERNACLES

A tabernacle or booth, built on a house-top, of branches of trees and palms, and decorated with corn to show the fruits of the earth and their ingathering. Every family has its tabernacle and entertains its various members very liberally.

of the Dead Sea is nearly one thousand, three hundred feet below the level of the Mediterranean. The Old Testament Jericho, so wonderfully besieged and taken, and the New Testament Jericho, where blind Bartimæus begged, and Zacchæus collected taxes, are both marked now by rubbish-heaps and ruins. It is on the site of the Jericho of Crusading times that the modern village stands, surrounded by gardens and groves of fruit trees.

It is a long climb back to Jerusalem. The pilgrims do it on foot; so did the multitudes who went out to hear and see the Baptist by the Jordan.

And now begins the most adventurous part of our journey. We might do it easily by taking train from Jerusalem back to Jaffa, thence fifty miles northward by steamer to Haifa, and then by carriage to Nazareth. But for many reasons—chief of which is we want to *live* in the great past, see the views that Jesus saw, see the peasants as He saw them—we decide to take the land journey by carriage to Nablous, and then to Nazareth on horseback.

It is a wonderful farewell view we get of Jerusalem as we mount the hill to the north and look back at the panorama; and then all day long we pass over rough hills and beautiful valleys, over rocky passes with bright streams, over fertile fields. With bewildering rapidity we leave behind us sites connected with David, Samuel, Eli, Joshua and his followers. We sleep at Nablous, the old city of Shechem, the first city (Sichem) mentioned in the Bible. Here live the remnant—only some two hundred poor folk—of the old Samaritans, and in their interesting synagogue we see the famous and ancient roll of the books of Moses and Joshua.

The Vale of Shechem is grandly walled in by two mountains, one dry and bare, with masses of prickly pear, the other, at its base, clothed with lovely flowers and shrubs, and gay with leaping brooks. We turn aside to see Jacob's Well, where Christ, weary with the heat, sat and rested and talked with the woman of Samaria.

The Kings of Israel did indeed find a grand site for their new capital, towering on its lonely hill, rising from broad and fertile plains. We take in as much as we can of the position of Ahab's ivory palace, of the ruins of the grand colonnade, of the magnificent views all round. What wild and stirring scenes once raged where now sad ruin and desolation brood over the Hill of Samaria!

Presently our way takes us across the Vale of Dothan, and as we go we live again in the familiar story of Joseph, and watch the dreamer coming over the fields to his brothers. We shudder at their treatment of the boy as we look into the old rock-cut bottle-shaped cisterns, into one of which he may have been let down, and, in that cloud of dust out yonder, we almost fancy we can see the caravan of Ishmaelites to whom he was sold, traveling on the ancient highway we are crossing. It is still a principal trade route between the Euphrates and Egypt.

As we cross the plain of Esdraelon we realize that we are in the very heart of a great battlefield where men have striven with each other from the times of Sisera to those of Napoleon. At this point we cross the railroad running from Beyrout to Damascus. These cedars which were used in the construction of the Temples of Jerusalem were taken down to the seacoast and from there transported to the seaport of Joppa whence they were carried to Jerusalem, an undertaking which must have been tremendous in those days of primitive means of transportation and engineering.

As the eventful day closes, the last ridge is crossed, and we are at Nazareth.

Next day we spend some happy hours among the rocky fields around, picking the "lilies of the field," watching the birds, and the boys tending sheep and goats. Things change here so little through the centuries that we have little difficulty in seeing them as they were two thousand years ago. Here are women grinding at the mill, travelers in flowing garments with scrip and staff, oxen plowing, people living on the house-tops, men carrying water in "bottles" made of the skins of animals. Our chief interest in Nazareth is to watch the mothers and children at the well, now called the Virgin's Well, in memory of the days when Mary came to it with her pitcher, holding her little Son by the hand.

Next day the carriage takes us on past Cana and the Hill of Blessings, and then at last we look down on the blue and sparkling Sea of Galilee, fringed round with green hills. We greatly enjoy a sail on the lake, seeing the spot where the Jordan enters strong and full into it, and noting on its shores the ruins of the old towns with familiar names that were dotted about it in the time of Christ. Ships and boats were busy then on its waters, plying from one to the other; the fishermen, too, had good markets for their abundant hauls of fish. In the early morning, next day, we cross it again from Tiberias, and amid the quiet ripple of the little waves we think of the scenes on its shores, of the storms, of the words borne across the water, "It is I, be not afraid."

From Semakh we take the train to Damascus, a journey of a few hours. Such varied scenery we pass, picturesque river valleys, pools of hot sulphur, bare plains dotted with the mounds of buried cities, and fine views from time to time of the snowy giant, Mount Hermon, whence springs the Jordan. The last part of the way is over the Damascus-Mecca Railway, by which thousands of pilgrims now travel toward the birthplace of Mohammed. The buildings of Damascus, of a pearly gray color, surrounded by thousands of the greenest trees, have gained for it the name of "pearl set in emeralds." It is also called the Immortal City, the oldest city in the world, for Damascus was full of people, thriving and beautiful, long ages before Rome was born.

We feel we would like many weeks, instead of days, in which to wander by the two rivers that make the fertile site of Damascus. In the bazars we are delighted with things old and new which show the skill of the people from early days in metal and leather work and in beautiful damask linen and hangings.

But we must tear ourselves away to visit the Great Mosque, for about it hangs the story of the lovely city from the days when Naaman, the Syrian captain, gained permission to bow himself in the House of Rimmon, and onward through Roman and Christian times.

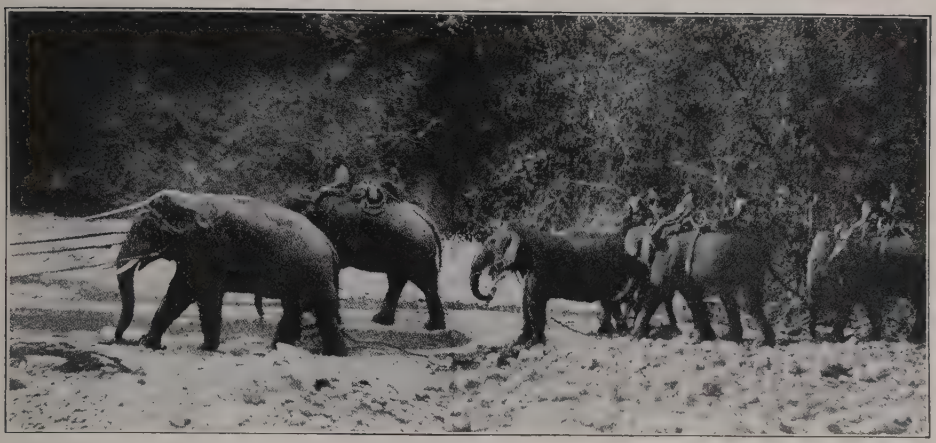
It is but a short journey by train to visit the grand ruins of the Temple of the Sun and of Bacchus, and the stupendous quarries of stone at Baalbek, in the plain between the two Lebanon ranges. Columns are still standing ninety feet high, immense flights of steps are still to be seen, and remains of huge terraces and walls.

By the old road that leads from Baalbek to the cedars of Lebanon, the traveler has to climb a pass eight thousand feet above the level of the sea, whence the view is superb, over snowy peaks, over mountain streams and valleys, far away to the Mediterranean on the one side, and to the

desolate distant ridges on the other. The cedars, grand and dreary as they are, some of them perhaps two thousand or three thousand years old, are but a remnant of the forests so famous in the days of Solomon.

But we have to take the train from Baalbek to the port of Beyrout, across the Lebanon range, and a most beautiful journey it is. The highest point is nearly five thousand feet above the sea, and the railway descends in zigzags through pine-forests. As we look out from the train, we think we have seen nothing more beautiful in all our tour than the views over the Mediterranean in the afternoon sun. As we arrive at Beyrout we find, as indeed we have throughout Palestine, a number of English speaking natives, and in this city we find the large Presbyterian college, established by Americans which is responsible for the large amount of English at present spoken throughout the Holy Land. It is one of the few examples where missionaries and missionary money has been expended in the Holy Land, which, while being the cradle of Christianity has been sadly neglected in this particular. Missionaries have been scattered broadcast throughout the world while Palestine has been left out and is sorely in need of uplifting. It is a country with merely a memory, possessing nothing of the grandeur which it held in ancient days. Even the climate seems to have betrayed it, leaving barren fields where fertile vineyards once stood.

However, at present there is a colonization going on which may be the salvation of this country and within one or two generations we may see Palestine the home of the Jews, as it was at the time of our Lord.



THE ANCIENT EMPIRE OF THE MOGULS

HOW would you like to go to India, where the sun shines nearly the whole year through, where there are enormous rivers in the midst of rice fields and jungle, where bullocks pull the carts, buffaloes plough the earth, camels carry the traveler, elephants work like porters in the forest, and 300 millions of the simplest, kindest, and most childlike people under heaven get their scanty living and dream of the life beyond the grave?

For centuries India thought of scarcely anything else but the next world; now she is beginning to think about industry, agriculture, commerce, science, and a great many other sensible and useful activities.

You need not go to India just now; but you can keep the thought in mind and consider it. But first of all you must know what India is really like.

Well, to begin with, directly his steamer gets to the Suez Canal the traveler feels that he is in a new world. The sun is much hotter, the light is more dazzling, the air glows and throbs with the intensity of its radiance. It is almost impossible to sleep in a cabin through the Red Sea, and most people lie on deck at night with only a light covering over them. Slowly the air cools as the traveler approaches Bombay, and at first, in the cold dawn of his arrival, he is inclined to think that India is very little different from any other country in the Occident on a summer's day. It looks flat and colorless; just a line of broken islands; a smoky mass of roofs, towers, and factory chimneys; and all round these islands there is as much noise and shipping as you see in New York harbor. But as the sun gets stronger, the mist and the smoke disappear, the yellow walls of Bombay shine in the fierce glare, hills are seen on every side, and the sky turns turquoise, the sea turns royal blue, and the air suddenly flashes like a living soul.

A STRANGE MOTLEY WORLD

Once in the streets of Bombay—in spite of its electric cars and automobiles—the traveler feels that now he is, really and truly, in a new world—a world utterly new and utterly strange. It is not only the extraordinarily vivid glare on the walls of houses, not only the suffocating heat which puts him straight away into a

Turkish bath even as he sits perfectly still in his gharry—a shabby little Victoria drawn by a shabby little horse—and it is not only the Eastern character of the architecture and the Indian blue of the sky and the queer appearance of banyan-trees, with their roots hanging down from their branches like a girl's brown hair after a swim in the sea; no, it is not only these things which affect the traveler's mind with a sense of strangeness and difference: the real cause is the people.

PICTURESQUE STREET SCENES

The streets of Bombay are packed and crowded with thousands upon thousands of people, whose complexions, garments, headgear, as well as their whole manner, suggest a new world. Some are yellow, some are brown, some are black, and some are almost white; some of them wear robes as gorgeous as an emperor's, and some are all but naked; some wear a little twist of cloth on their heads, and some a turban vaster than the hat of the most vulgar woman now in London or Paris; and some are ferocious to look at, some are gentle as lambs, some are like our idea of Old Testament heroes, some are like Brutus, Nero, Julius Cæsar, and Dante.

Into whatever Indian city the traveler goes he finds the same thing—crowds of people differing from each other in color, features, expression, dress, language, habits, and religion: people who are more different than Russians from Spaniards, or Germans from Italians, or Britons from Turks. He is confused by all these millions of different Indians, and cannot discover which are the true representatives of the Indian nation.

He goes into the bazars, away from the European quarter, and there sees the real life of an Indian city. The word bazar stands for a native market street, and these market streets of India are the most interesting, perplexing, amusing, and confusing things imaginable.

The streets are very narrow, the gaily painted, sun-blistered houses are seldom more than one or two stories high, and the ground floor, occupied by the shop, is like a little barrow or a stall at a country fair. No window obtrudes between the counter and the people on the pavement, and the merchant either squats in the doorway or sits cross-legged on the counter.

THE NEVER-CEASING MULTITUDES FOREVER MOVING PAST THE SHOPS

From side to side the street is thronged by a slow-moving procession of humanity; everybody appears to be talking at once; nobody seems to want to buy, and nobody seems to want to sell; it looks as if the whole thing were merely a very elaborate "game of shops," and as if a number of rather big doll's houses had been ranged side by side for this purpose.

The traveler sees one old bearded merchant, a Mussulman, reading his Koran through a pair of worn spectacles, his lips moving and his finger following the print—reading it there on the counter of his shop, amid piles of brass pots, or carpets, or many-colored sweetmeats, or rolls of silk. And he sees, among these merchants on their counters or in their doorways, another man praying, and a woman examining her baby's head, and a Hindu merchant having his head shaved, and another puffing contemplatively at his enormous hookah pipe, and another dropping off to sleep with his hands clasped over a vast expanse of girth. And all the time the never-ceasing multitudes of chattering people go slowly by, their splendid garments flashing in the

bright sunlight, their many colored faces assaulted by a host of flies, and their bright eyes and their white teeth shining like diamonds.

Every now and then, in the midst of these shops, the traveler sees a wondrously ornate building, often gold colored and carved extravagantly, with a flight of steps leading to a dim interior.

THE GOLD COLORED TEMPLES OF THE PEOPLE WHO WOULD NOT KILL A FLEA

If, as well he might, the traveler takes one of these buildings for a music-hall, a circus, or photo-play theater, and if he attempts to enter, fumbling in his pocket for a rupee, he will be roughly seized and thrown back into the street, where—as likely as not—a miniature revolution will immediately take place.

For these buildings are Hindu temples, where gods and goddesses are worshiped with a ritual like that of the Roman Catholic Church, and where no wicked infidel of a Christian is ever permitted to set foot. During a festival the very streets in which these temples stand are closed against Europeans, lest a white man should pollute the sacred atmosphere with his degraded breath, and foul the holy ground with his heinous boot-leather. Some of the temples are more or less pretty in appearance, but nearly every one is marred by some repulsive carving meant to overawe and terrify the worshiper. One of these terrible gods is portrayed with an elephant's head on his shoulders, another is a frightful monkey, and the goddess Kali is represented with skulls and bones for ornaments, with a severed head in her left hand, a fearful, crimson-dyed sword in her right, and such an expression of murderous ferocity on her distorted face as would give a nervous child nightmare for a month of Sundays.

The finest of these temples belong to the Jains—pronounced Jynes—a sect of Hindus who are not only vegetarians, but so devoted to all forms of life that they will not even kill the fleas that poison them. They are a dwindling sect, in consequence, a flea-conquered race of humanity, bitten to death without a single scratch in self-defence; but they are immensely rich, and the fronts of their golden temples make a most striking effect in the bazars.

Then, every here and there, the traveler sees a most imposing building, usually pale blue and white, with a wide flight of stairs leading to the arched entrance, and with minarets shining against the azure of heaven from the roof. These are mosques, where the Mussulmans, followers of Mohammed, worship Allah, the one true and indivisible God. No statues or pictured windows decorate these mosques, nothing which by any stretch of the imagination could be considered a graven image or a possible cause of idolatry, for the Mussulman is descended from Father Abraham, and is like the Israelite of old, who worshiped one God, in the midst of innumerable heathens devoted to idols. So it comes about that the traveler can always distinguish between a temple and a mosque even from the outside, for the one is a mass of carved figures and contorted ornamentation, while the other is plain, simple, austere, and sometimes nobly beautiful.

But although the bazars are the soul of an India city they are by no means the soul of India. It is not until the splendid trains of the Indian railways—some of the carriages are fitted with a bath room—have carried the traveler far away from towns, and not until he has left his wayside station, perhaps in a bullock-cart, and has gone many miles into the open

THE JAMA MASJID AT DELHI, INDIA

This is India's greatest mosque and is the second largest in the world. It was built by Shah Jehan in the first part of the seventeenth century and possessed a sacred relic, a hair from the beard of the prophet. The illustration shows a crowd in the court and which is 325 feet square, dispersing after meeting at prayers.

country, that he begins to realize, apprehend, and receive into his own, the real soul of India.

How may be described this soul of India? It is something shy, timorous, wistful and appealing. It does not greet you with the rugged strength and boisterous self-confidence of Dover Cliff, or with the passionate sweetness of Italian hills, or with the sunburnt cheerfulness of France. It creeps towards you like a spaniel that fears to be scolded and hopes to be caressed. It is a little guilty and ashamed, as though it had stood for ages and ages with its face to the corner, and only now had received permission to turn round and face the world. You cannot say it is beautiful, but you would be blind of both eyes if you pronounced it dull, ugly, uninteresting. Contemplate slowly and thoughtfully this soul of India, and you will say at last that it is the saddest, quietest, gentlest, and most timorous soul in all this world's mysterious geography.

Never once will you hear Indian children shouting at their play, or see an Indian and his wife walking arm in arm across the fields, or feel one moment's thrill of joy and excitement from all these crowding millions of humanity. And this universal spirit of restraint and self-suppression in the people is the very spirit of India's scenery. The plains are almost level, and sometimes are as brown, parched, and arid as the sands of the desert; the jungle for the most part consists of shrubs, scrub, and undergrowth; the tanks — artificial lakes—are wide and beautiful, but sad beyond words; the rivers, except during the rains, are generally a few trickles of water winding desolately through a vast bed that reminds one of a stone quarry; the hills are low and gentle, covered with trees, and more or less green; the mountains, north and south, are wonderfully majestic, and in some parts more lovely far and even more romantic than the mountains of Europe, but they do not seem to belong to India. The real India lies between these mountains, a low-lying, gentle, undulating, eternally pensive country—a country where no one is in a hurry, no one is excited about anything, and where even the brightest sunshine is destitute of joy. You see the most gorgeous birds in the world, but you hear no such song as rings through our American woodlands.

At the edges of every river you see half-naked men—an army of them—washing clothes. In the fields you see colonies of men and women plowing, sowing and reaping—for all these occupations occur at the same time, just as in the Indian jungle you may see, all at once, trees in spring, summer, and autumn dress, and some bare for winter. And everywhere you see wells, to which women are moving through the green rice-fields with brazen vessels balanced on their heads, and at which men are working all day with their bullocks. And round the tanks children wait for the buffaloes to come out from the water to be driven back to the homestead. And in the jungle primitive people may be seen moving among the scrub with bows and arrows. And along the highways may always be seen caravans of camels, strings of bullock-carts, a procession of elephants, a herd of goats, and little groups of pilgrims carrying their sick or their dead to the sacred river and the burning-ground.

India is full of movement, but sad movement. It is the sorrowful movement of the elephant, not the gay and careless rapture of a colt. Sorrowfully toil the peasants, laboriously move the animals, draggingly creep the children.

But enter one of the villages, make yourself pleasant to the people, and straightway you will discover that these quiet and apparently sad Indians are a most winsome and agreeable folk. You will never meet with a more charming courtesy. The humblest peasant has the grace of a king, and will receive you with the most ingratiating charm. Forward will come the head man—the mayor of the village—and, salaaming before your honor, will beg you to be seated, will offer you curry and rice on a plantain leaf—you must eat with your fingers—and will offer you a cup of water. He will tell you, if you understand his language, that his bosom swells with pride because you, a great sahib, have come such a long way to see his humble village. And then he will ask questions: Are you one of a large family? Have you much money? What is the price of rice in your part of the world? If you admire his baby, and it happens to be a girl, he will beg you to accept it as a present.

The houses are built of mud walls, with roofs formed of interlaced palm leaves. Most of them have a veranda, where the men sleep; the interior, with no furniture, is shared by the women, children, poultry, cattle, and very often a parrot. A Hindu believes that his god becomes annoyed if he is not perpetually praised, and so a parrot is trained to say the god's name and a word or two of adoration; the Hindu takes it easy while the bird utters this monotonous chant from morning to night.

In most villages there is either a temple or a shrine, for the Hindus' religion is the central business of life. Sometimes they daub a tree or a rock with red paint, and worship that. Just outside many of the villages you will see most curiously shaped camels, horses, or elephants, made of mud and clay and painted in fantastic colors; these animals are provided by the villagers for their gods and goddesses, in case the divinities should wish to take a ride. In villages, or quarters of towns and cities, where those people live who are called helots, pariahs, or outcasts—that is to say, the lowest people in India, and there are some 70,000,000 of them—the temple is a very humble mud hovel, and the priests are called "black priests," and a real Brahman priest would rather die than speak to one of these black brothers.

THE DOCTOR WHO WOULD LET SEVENTY MILLION PEOPLE PERISH

A caste postman will not give letters into the hands of these outcasts; he flings them down contemptuously at the head of the village street. A caste doctor will not go to them when they are sick; the whole 70,000,000 might perish before he would go. A Brahman priest will not go to them when they are dying. Until England went to India these poor pariahs were the most wretched and despised people under heaven. But now, slowly and surely, Christianity is converting them into a bold and intelligent democracy.

Many temples of great splendor—in a certain sense of the word—are scattered throughout India. Some of them are set on the tops of hills, like the castles in Europe, and look very grand and impressive, flashing all their carvings and coloring in the blaze of the sun. The greatest of these temples have entrance gateways in the fashion of Chinese pagodas, painted, as a rule, red and yellow, and they are carved with hideous and repulsive faces.

The famous and holy city of Benares is crammed with extraordinary temples. In one you see a white bull feeding on rose petals from a huge golden dish, the pilgrims kneeling on the dirty floor—which is like a foul stable—in

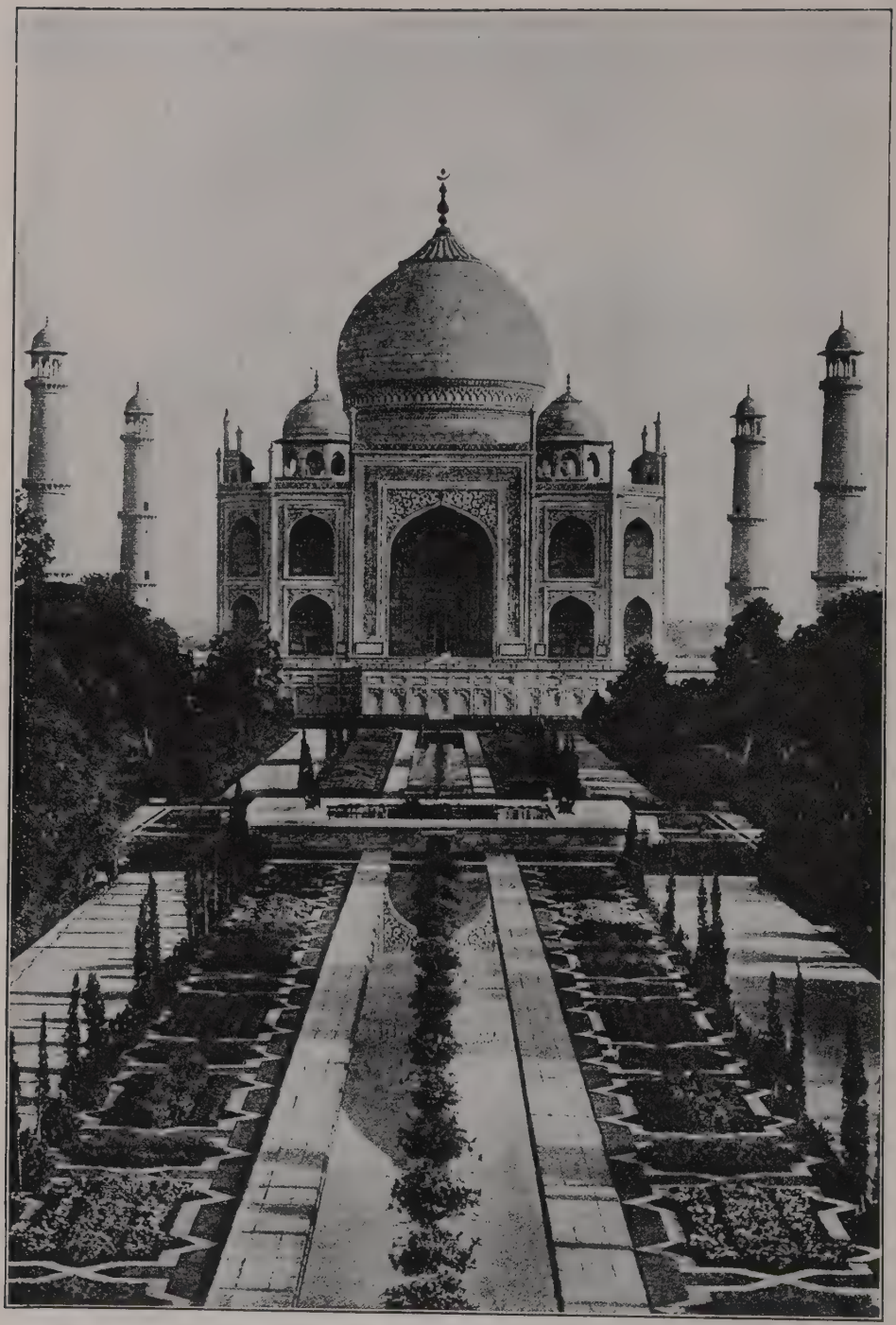
A GHAT AT BENARES, THE SACRED CITY OF THE HINDUS

worship and adoration. In another temple you fancy yourself in the monkey-house of the Zoological Gardens, for it is alive with sacred monkeys chasing the pilgrims for food. To the Mussulman all this is disgusting, revolting, and blasphemous; but the Mussulmans are 70,000,000, and the Hindus are 230,000,000. In spite of this great disparity in numbers, however, the Mussulmans would make holy war against the Hindus but for the Pax Britannica—or "British Peace" —as the peace maintained by the British Government is called.

PERHAPS THE MOST PERFECT BUILDING ON EARTH

It is in the old cities of India that one sees the most glorious buildings and the most beautiful architecture. In Agra, for instance, you breathe the very air of the great Mogul Empire, and the mosques of Islam there and in Delhi surpass in the sweet dignity of their refined beauty anything that is possessed in Europe. The marble floors, walls, and roofs are cut to represent flowers, and inlaid with precious stones. Some of the panels are carved and pierced so that they look like fretwork. In the palace of Shah Jehan at Agra there is one of these beautiful panels so cunningly carved that while people inside can look through and see everything, the person on the other side can see nothing at all of the interior. The Taj Mahal at Agra, standing in a cypress garden on the banks of the Jumna, is perhaps the most perfect building on this earth; it is the tomb built by Shah Jehan for his faithful wife, and there he and she now lie in tombs of marble,

Often, surely, the Mussulmans who visit these exquisite and superb creations of their dead emperors must look with questioning eyes and rebellious hearts at the hideous red-brick barns



THE TAJ MAHAL ("GEM OF BUILDINGS") AT AGRA, INDIA

Built by Shah Jehan, the great mogul of Delhi, as a tomb for his favorite wife. It was begun in 1632, and was twenty-two years in building. Travelers, painters and poets have all sought to describe the indefinable charm of this building.

which are erected to God, and which, sometimes, we fill with statues and images and symbols, which the Mussulman regards as the abomination of idolatry.

THE SPLENDID WORK THAT ENGLAND IS DOING FOR INDIA

But England is doing something more than setting up these ugly churches. She is turning the rivers here and there, so that waste deserts, where no man ever lived before, now hold a million families who thrive exceedingly. She is also setting up immense factories, laying railway lines in every direction, building hospitals and schools, delving deep into the earth for coal and silver, improving agriculture, keeping the peace, withstanding the tyrant, and commanding equal justice for rich and poor.

So perhaps it is only a few dreamers who look back with regret on the days of the Great Moguls, days of hideous tyranny and incessant war, days of fiendish cruelty, assassination, murder, torture and brutality.

Children are now taught to read and write, the lowest outcast can enter a Government hospital, and the meanest peasant can claim justice from the proudest Brahman.

And India is waking up. Quietly and without excitement she is putting back the blankets of custom, raising her head from the pillow of superstition, and looking with slowly opening eyes towards the new sun of freedom and enterprise. The traveler finds nearly all the comforts of Europe in the new cities. The hotels have elevators, electric lights, bath-rooms, and French cooks. There is a proper water-supply and system of drainage. Indians have their clubs, and play cricket, polo, and tennis. At almost every railway station there is a good refreshment-room, and a large waiting-room fitted with lounges and arm-chairs, where a traveler may pass the night and take a bath in the morning free of charge. And though things are rather dearer than they used to be, a man may still live luxuriously in India on money that would render life hard and troublesome elsewhere. The peasant keeps a family on five cents a day; the factory hand is rich with twelve cents a day; and the schoolmaster is a Crœsus with four dollars a month.

Beautiful, if wistful and sad, is this great empire of India; and though it takes most people a little time to accustom themselves to the burning sun and incessant glare, it is a country where people live noble lives and are so happy that many of them settle there even when they can afford to come home.

THE CASTE SYSTEM

The vast population of India is made up of minute subdivisions, often consisting of a few families only, living isolated lives; mixing, of course, in the business of life, but hardly at all socially. It is this tendency that has greatly assisted in bringing about the system of "caste," which, as a custom permeating all classes of society, is only known in India proper. In practice, caste is primarily shyness in regard to bodily contact with one's fellowman, and, as a consequence of the personal exclusiveness thus incurred, caste has become largely a question of occupation as a means of livelihood. In this way a "caste" is a community, however small, that will eat, drink, smoke and marry together on equal terms. Anyone outside the ring thus formed is a stranger, and though there are nominally great general castes, like the Brahmans, spread in large numbers all over the country, in real life these are split up into innumerable sub-castes, which are, for the purposes of domestic intercourse,

separated from each other. A Brahman of Kashmir is not, in practice, a Brahman to a fellow caste-man hailing from Madras, nor would one of Bombay admit another from Bengal to the fellowship involved in the matters mentioned above. The isolation is as complete as the conditions of civilization will allow, and the superiority of one caste over another is a question as to which will take or refuse food or drink (smoking is included in drinking) from the other, or marry a daughter or refuse a daughter in marriage; though marriage is confined within much stricter limits than contact in any other way.

The Religions of India

So also is Indian society divided into small sects, each with its own system of ethics and customs, so far as regards the practice. There are main religions, indeed, but sect is the soul of religious custom, and any given custom does not extend, without material alteration, very far from the place in which it is observed.

The great indigenous religion is that known as "Hinduism," which has adopted caste as a distinguishing feature. Broadly, it may be described as a systematized animism, or worship of spirits, seeing a soul, as a kind of living background, in everything. From Hinduism there has sprung in comparatively modern times a conspicuous reform in the shape of Sikhism, the religion of the Sikhs of the punjab, who have played so important a part in the more recent history of the country.

The original tenets of the Sikh religion included a belief in one God of the universe, and a rejection of idolatry, caste, immurement of women, use of intoxicants and tobacco, pilgrimage and other practices of the surrounding Hindus. But it has largely fallen away from these ideals and tends to slip back gently into Hindu ethics. Later it became the cult of a strong military society with certain special ceremonies and customs.

There is also a significant sacrament or communion of consecrated butter, flour and sugar, of which all the faithful present must partake, without reference to caste, in memory of the original rejection of the caste system by the early teachers.

Allied generally also to Hinduism, and sprung very long ago out of the ancient Brahmanism, from which the Hinduism of today is itself ultimately derived, is Jainism, the religion of the Jains. The Buddhists and Jains, who are spread in numbers over many widely separated parts of India, were originally Hindu non-conformists, and the latter still largely bear that character. But whereas Buddhism put together its theory of religious life without a soul, Jainism emphasizes its existence and endows all things with life. The main expression of this line of thought is the extraordinary sanctity which Jains attach to life in any form, inducing many of them to cover their mouths with a small hanging veil in order to avoid swallowing small insects.

The other great religious force in India is Mohammedanism, in theory identical with that which prevlais elsewhere in the world, but in practice, everywhere, except among the educated, largely tinged with Hindu customs and superstitions.

Puritans and Ritualists of the East

Both these great religions are divided into two main classes, which correspond roughly to the Puritans and Ritualists known in other parts of the world. The Hindus consist of Saivas and Vaishnavas, after the two great deities, Siva and Vishnu, and the Mohammedans, as elsewhere, of

A GYAN BAPI, OR POOL OF KNOWLEDGE

Shows a Hindu Siva shrine built over a well, with the typical Bull of Siva in front, and the images of the god and his wife Parbati, covered with garlands. [illegible] worshippers are bringing offerings. The attendant priest is sitting in the shrine, while a goat and a wild-looking man are offering prayers.

Sunis and Shi'ahs, though the latter are not numerous in India. But though the ideas involved in Puritanism and Ritualism do to a certain extent control the customs of their respective followers, yet the chief fact to grasp is that in India it is minute sect and caste that govern custom in practice.

SIKH PRIEST

The peculiarities of the Sikh costume consist in the wearing of the five K's, viz.: (1) the kes, or uncut hair of the whole body. (2) The Kachh, or short drawers ending above the knee. (3) The kara, or iron bangle. (4) The khanda, or small steel dagger. (5) The khanga, or comb. In the case of the priests, these symbols of their creed are worn in a greatly exaggerated manner, as shown in the illustration.

In addition to all this there sprang up in all parts of the country in the Middle Ages, with very many followers ever since, great eclectic religious reformers (Guru Nanak, the founder of Sikhism was one of them), who went far afield for their inspiration and tenets, not disdaining those of Christianity. Their teachings have deeply colored the beliefs and ideas of the whole modern population; so that, to use very general terms, the average civilized Hindu of today believes theoretically in one God, or Supreme Spirit, and practically in a number of minor and spiritual powers of varying importance.

The principal object of all domestic and religious customs throughout the country, whatever the form of faith, is to ward off supernatural injury and the evil eye, which last notion in India gives concrete form to an idea altogether different from that ordinarily current in Europe. In India the "evil eye" is the glance of pleasure or approval, and it is "evil" because it rouses the jealousy of the guardian spirit and causes it to do mischief to the object admired. A child is in greater danger from the "evil eye" of its own doting mother than of any other person. This belief leads to all sorts of curious results; for instance, the placing of black arresting spots on the soles of a crawling infant's feet, and the deliberate marring by a flaw of an otherwise perfect design in a work of art.

THE PARSEES

Allusion must also be made to the Parsees, a very small body or race in the country, under one hundred thousand all told, who by conspicuous ability and energy have raised themselves into an important community with a commanding influence. The name is properly Farsi, or Persian, and the Parsees are the descendants

KRISHNA WORSHIP

A quiet family observance of the Janamashthami (a ceremony on the eighth day after a birth), held at the commencement of the long Indian Lent in commemoration of the birth of Krishna. A sort of Christmas Day.

A JAIN SAINT

Jain ascetics never light a fire, nor cook and always brush the ground clear of insects before sitting down, all to avoid destroying life

THE HOLI FESTIVAL

The spring Saturnalia of the Hindus is the Holi festival, which is much mixed up with the cult of the great goddess Devi in her distinctive form of Durga. She is here represented by a boy riding a lion, accompanied by two other boys dressed as Sakhis, or female attendants.

PROTECTING A HINDU HOME

To prevent evil spirits from entering the house, Hindu women often draw cabalistic designs on the door, on the walls, or in front of the doorstep.

of Persian refugees who left their country for India rather than depart from their ancient faith and become Mohammedans.

They are still Zoroastrians and fire-worshippers, and have customs of their own, though in some ways they have succumbed to surrounding influences.

RELIGIOUS HOLIDAYS

The long-established habit of confining many classes of the women strictly to the hearth and home has had its own effect on the daily lives of the people, and has resulted in the creation of an extraordinary number of quasi-religious ceremonies throughout the year—a large portion of female life being occupied in their performance. In considering domestic customs of the country this fact must always be borne in mind.

MARRIAGE CEREMONIES

A great series of family ceremonies is connected with marriage, for courtship finds no place in the ordinary Indian household. A marriage usually starts by the appointment of a match-maker by the girl's family to seek a suitable boy; no easy matter, in view of the many caste and other customary restrictions as to choice. When the negotiations are accomplished, and the dowry is settled, there is a formal betrothal by making the bride's people a present at the bridegroom's house, which commences the marriage proper.

This is followed by the marriage procession on the occasion of the first formal visit of the bridegroom to the bride's house for the marriage itself, after which, at varying periods of time, there is a second and less important procession for bringing the bride to her future home. This she usually enters as the most lowly member of the family. Such, in outline, are the main ceremonies connected with an orthodox marriage, varied in many quaint details according to caste, religion and position in life.

In a Hindu household the marriage ceremonies are prolonged and continuous. When the marriage is agreed, the bridegroom's father visits the bride, and they each provide a little rice, which a Brahman mixes up and then divides between them, to be subsequently parched in a ceremonial manner. Then occur conventional performances day by day in both houses for a week before the bridegroom's procession starts, including the setting up of the marriage shed and anointing the boy and girl. Among these in places is the quaint ceremony of swallowing the mango fiber. The mother's brother puts a present of money and ornaments into her left hand, while the barber's wife gives him the center of a mango leaf hung up in the marriage shed, which he presents to the mother's mouth. She bites off a piece and puts it in the hollow of her right hand, into which he pours a little water. The mother then holds it over her daughter's head and gulps it all down.

The bridegroom's procession is conducted with all the pomp available, but he must take a little of the water in which he is bathed before he starts, to be mixed with that in which the bride is bathed after he arrives at her house. At the house door follow the first scattering of rice over the bridegroom, the ceremony of the curry pestle, during which the family pestle is applied to the bridegroom's cheek, and the marking of his forehead with yellowish sandalwood paste; but these proceedings are generally confined among the rich to merely making wedding presents. After arrival follow the important acts of making bracelets of a few grains of rice wrapped in mango leaves for the right wrist

HINDU MARRIAGE PROCESSION

The band at the head of the marriage procession of an ordinary well-to-do Hindu consists nowadays of players on both European and Indian instruments; and as these are not attuned together and play indifferently music of either sort, the result is most incongruous to American ears.

of the bridegroom and the left wrist of the bride, and the adoration of the bride, and sometimes of the groom as well, with offerings of sweets and ornaments.

The bride is next seated between her mother's knees, fully adorned in her bridal head-dress of date leaves, for the nail-cutting ceremony, which is solemnly performed on the hands and feet of both by the family barber's wife. After this the bridal pair are seated in the marriage shed. The marriage service consists of repeating Sanskrit verses and various acts of worship, and includes throwing incense on the fire and scattering rice. It is performed by a Brahman, while the father of the bride seats her in his lap, which act is tantamount to giving the girl in marriage. The positive acts of marriage are the knotting together of the clothes of bride and bridegroom, and the circumambulation of the sacrificial fire. The bride goes first, and the fire must be kept to the right and walked around five times. A winnowing sieve must be carried by the pair, from which rice is scattered by shaking it. This ceremony winds up with a fumigation with incense by a Brahman.

There follow the application of the vermilion marriage spot by the bridegroom to the bride's forehead at the parting of her hair, the stopping of the groom at the house door by the bride's sisters to answer set riddles, and the stealing of the groom's shoes to make him get over his nervous silence (he is only a boy, as a rule) and ask for them. The long ceremonial day ends with the worship of the family guardian spirit by the pair, after which the bridegroom goes to his people, and the bride remains with hers. Four days later the bride and groom are bathed, and their marriage bracelets are taken off, and at last the marriage proceedings proper

come to a final conclusion. But even then the bride is not a wife till, with many more ceremonies and a procession, she is sent to live with her husband when she is old enough.

Marriage among the Mohammedans

Strictly speaking, there are no marriage ceremonies among the Mohammedans, except the few allowed by the Sacred Law, and this, of course, is the rule among the educated and more highly placed. A prominent feature of marriage among most classes is the grant of an absurdly large dowry to the bride by the groom, which is, however, her protection; for, if divorced as would otherwise be easily possible, she can claim and recover as much as is practicable of her dowry.

Among the uneducated classes of the Moslems there are, in India, as in other Mohammedan countries, a great number of ceremonies, of which the following may be noticed here. The use of red paper, or paper sprinkled with red, for documents and letters; the drinking of sherbet, and the giving of sweetmeats and small presents to certain privileged persons at every step are specialties of a great part of the ceremonial. After the preliminaries have been arranged and presents have been exchanged between the contracting houses, there follows the formal betrothal, of which an interesting feature is the presentation of a plain ring, a red kerchief and sweets to the bridegroom, and the letter of promise on behalf of the girl fixing a day for the wedding.

All this takes place before the marriage procession, which is conducted much on the Hindu lines, and the making of a number of conventional presents to the bride. Then comes the showing of the bride to the groom, to whom she is always a stranger, and some curious additional ceremonies. of which a peculiar feature is that the bride must keep her eyes shut throughout and not put her foot to the ground, being carried about in the arms of a maid, even to her husband's house on the day after the marriage. There is a further ceremonial there for two or three days, after which the bridegroom goes with the bride to her home for a ten days' stay. This is the real marriage, as a room is provided for the pair, into which the bride has to walk—this being the first time she is allowed to put her foot to ground since the ceremonies began. At her entrance the groom is expected to salaam to her. If he neglects this, showers of abuse are poured upon him.

The funeral pyre

Speaking in general terms, Hindus may be said to burn their dead; but this is far from being the universal rule, as many castes and tribes bury. When an ordinary Hindu dies, the body is taken out of the house and placed on a bier at a spot outside the village where the mourners can collect, and the house is then purified with fresh plaster. The bier is carried to the banks of a river, where the corpse is bathed, dressed in new waist-cloth and sheet, and the mouth washed. It is then placed on the funeral pile, while the chief mourner, usually the next heir, has his head and face shaved. After the pyre is lighted with a long torch by the chief mourner, he walks round the corpse five times, touching the lips each time with the torch.

When the body is nearly all burned, everyone present throws five sticks into the fire and helps to put it out. The unconsumed portions of the body are thrown to the fish in the river. The funeral party then wash the place of burning and a sacred sweet basil shrub is planted in the neighborhood. After this they all bathe in the river at another spot and go home.

Next day the chief mourner pours a little fresh milk on the burning place, and on returning home a pot of fresh milk, with a hole in it, so made that the milk can drip away, is hung up in a tree, which he walks round three times, and then gives a funeral feast to the relatives. For the next ten evenings a lamp is lighted in honor of the deceased at various spots on the route from the pyre to the house.

On the third, tenth and other days up to a month after the death, there are special ceremonies, of which feeding Brahmans is a prominent feature; and on the last of these days the widow puts on her weeds, to be worn for life—in the upper classes white, in the lower varying colors. Hindu corpses, when buried, are usually placed in the grave fully dressed and seated cross-legged, facing the north, with cakes in the hands.

As regards widows, it should be remembered that the well known prohibition of remarriage and being turned into the family servants, even in the case of child widows, was always far from being universal, and that the equally well known custom of *sati*, or burning of widows with the corpses of their husbands, was never common. They owe their notoriety to the horror induced by them in strangers, and to their prevalence among the richer and more socially prominent classes. It should always be borne in mind that the maintenance of more than one wife is a luxury which only the comparatively few well-to-do have ever been able to indulge in. The exigencies of family finance has, in India, as elsewhere in the civilized East, confined a man to one wife at a time.

MOHAMMEDAN FUNERAL CUSTOMS

Among the Moslems the body is first thoroughly bathed and cleaned, and then dressed in a fresh loin-cloth. A sheet is next taken and a hole torn in the middle, through which the head of the corpse is thrust. After this it is carried to the graveyard covered with a sheet. Here prayers are recited, which differ for a man, woman, or child, and the corpse is laid in the grave with the head to the north. The body is roofed over with bamboos or planks, and thatching grass plastered over with mud. The grave is then filled in with earth, every member of the family present taking a hand in this.

For the next few days nothing is cooked in the house, the family being supplied with food by relatives. On the third day there is an interesting final ceremony. The whole of the family male connections assemble in an open place, where some grain, flowers, betel-leaf and sherbet are collected. Each man present takes up a grain, blesses it by a formal benediction, and drops it on a cloth, until the heap is exhausted. The grain is distributed to mendicants and the sherbet is drunk by the party, while a certain chapter of the Koran is recited.

In the course, then, of the festivities and ceremonies connected with the ordinary domestic events of family life there is much to occupy the spare time of the people, without reference to the fixed festivals and other performances involved in the exercise of their religion. These, too, are very numerous and cover such operations as plowing, sowing, planting, protecting, harvesting, winnowing and measuring the crops, and such matters as protecting flocks and herds and the daily or periodical worship of the tools and implements of trades and callings, and also the worship of the personal or family or caste guardian gods and spirits. Further, the village demigod or supernatural hero has his or her special cult and ceremonial on no

account to be neglected. The gods and demigods or sanctified heroes of the Hindus have their exact counterparts among the Mohammedans in the shape of deceased saints, who have to be propitiated in the same manner. And so the eternal round of feast, fast, or similar obligation never ceases.

The two great means to be found outside the home for diversifying private life are the holding of fairs and the making of pilgrimages. There is always a local fair not very far off, and there are great recurring fairs held at fixed places and at fixed periods, sometimes years apart, and often on a very large scale. A pilgrimage to some celebrated holy spot or shrine is a great undertaking, which it is the hope of most villagers to accomplish at some time during life. It involves, on arrival, the performance of ceremonies held to be of vital religious importance, and the expenditure of more money than the pilgrim can properly afford.

Formal religious festivals

The formal religious festivals of the Hindus vary greatly, but one or two may be looked on as more or less universal. Of these the most prominent is the Holi, held in spring, a kind of Saturnalia of very ancient origin, in which the whole of the lower orders join, whatever the creed they may profess. The chief features are the lighting of the Holi fires with much singing, and throwing red and saffron powder over each other's clothes. There is also some passing or jumping through bonfires on the part of aspirants to special local sanctity.

In the autumn falls the pretty Diwáli, or "Feast of Lamps," when everyone must clean and light up his house and burn at least one lamp outside it at night; so that when the spirits of his dead revisit it they may find it nice and bright for their reception. Then in the villages follows the Godhan, when cowherds go round to their employers in a state of semi-intoxication, with a sing-song, and collect presents in a fashion common in rural Europe.

For four months in every year there is a kind of Lent, analogous to that of the Buddhists, from July to October, during which it is unlucky to celebrate marriages, repair roofs, or construct beds. It represents the sleep of the god (usually Vishnu), and there is a fast as the god commences his rest, and a feast at his awakening, when whole villages will run riot with feasting and dancing.

Festival of absolution

Dasahra signifies "the absolving tenth"—that is, the tenth of particular Indian months, when sins can be washed away by prescribed performances. The days usually selected are the 10th of Jaith (during July) and the 10th of Asauj (during October). The feast in July is a one-day function, generally in honor of the birth of Ganga, the Ganges deified as the great sacerdotal purifier. Bathing in the Ganges and in other sacred streams and sheets of water representing the Purifier, absolves from sin in varying degrees, and in this connection it is of importance to note, as illustrating many Indian habits and ideas, some of which are, hygienically speaking, disastrous, that water purifies—any kind of water is efficacious for this purpose. The feast in October is a great public festival, held wherever possible. It is the Dasahra proper and lasts ten days, or rather nights, winding up with a general fire-sacrifice and throwing of images of the goddess into the nearest stream. The last night has also naturally come to be attached to the idea of war, and is now the "Night of Victory," beloved of soldiers and princes. The means

and implements of war are worshiped and revered; feasting is indulged in and plays are performed commemorating the wars recorded in the two great Indian epics—the *Ramayan* and the *Mahabharat*.

Open air dramas

Of a nature somewhat similar to that of the fixed festivals are the interminable, long-winded, open-air dramas founded on the Hindu epics. Of these one of the most famous and persistently played year after year is the *Ram Lila*, "Play of Ram." This represents the story of Ram and Sita, originally the hero and heroine of the great epic *Ramayan*, who have been exalted to the Godhead itself, and into the personification of the highest form of female virtue. The whole legend is faithfully gone through, from the banishment of Ram and Sita the abduction of Sita by the monster Rawan, to her recovery through the good offices of the monkey Hanumān and his army. The scene closes with the burning of a huge effigy of the monster, to the delight of the crowd.

Mohammedan festivals

The chief peculiarities of the Mohammedan festivals is that in India, as elsewhere they wander round the secular year, as the lunar year, which is followed for religious purposes by the Mohammedans, is about ten days shorter than the solar. This difference is important, as every festival recurs once in every thirty-six years.

As in the case of the Hindu festivals, the whole population will join in some of those of the Mohammedans for the fun of the thing. The most prominent is the Mohurrum, which purports to represent a miracle play in commemoration of the deaths, or as it is called, the martyrdom, of Hasan and Husain, the grandsons of Mohammed through his daughter Fatima. It lasts ten days, and is essentially a Shi'ah

A PARSI LADY AT HER DEVOTIONS

The Parsis use fire as a medium and not as an object of worship. The purifying and light-giving element was thought by Zoroaster to be the most befitting symbol of the Godhead. In the fire sandalwood and frankincense are burned.

PECULIAR DRESS

The Dogras are a military Hindu race in the Western Himalayas and the Punjab, of which the Maharaja of Kashmir is the chief representative. The illustration shows a charcoal burner wearing the peculiar dress of the people.

THE MOHURRUM FESTIVAL, MADRAS

Mohammedan troops in procession with the *Tabut*, or model of the tombs of the martyrs Hassan and Husain. Some "Mohurrum dancers" are shown in the foreground. They are supposed to represent the followers of Husain who were killed at the same time as their leader.

festival, though orthodox Sunis will join in it on the last day to commemorate the Creation, it being remembered that Mohammedans, like Christians, accept the old Jewish cosmogony.

But whatever the origin or purport of the festival, it is now to the people an occasion for mighty crowds and immense processions, accompanied by horse-play of all kinds. The carrying of the *tabut* or *tazia*, brilliantly illuminated models of the tombs of Hasan and Husain, in full procession at night, with dancers representing their fighting martyred relatives, is a principal religious feature of the festival to the orthodox, while the Mohurrum fires, of doubtful origin, are the chief superstitious feature to the ignorant masses in India, both Mohammedan and Hindu. They are kept burning in pits all through the festival, even by the poorest, and over them passers-by make vows, while crowds dance round them all the nights long, leaping through the flames and scattering the burning brands.

The Ramzan, or "Fasting Month," from new moon to new moon, is often kept with surprising fidelity by Indian Mohammedans, and in years when it occurs in successive hot seasons it is a great tax and hardship on the people, as they can neither eat nor drink from sunrise to sunset. The Ramzan closes with the Idu'l-fitr, or "Feast of breaking the Fast." This is merely an occasion for celebrating the general feeling of relief and rejoicing. There are no set ceremonies. Families simply dress themselves up, pay visits to each other, and do anything they can invent in the way of amusement.

SUPERSTITIOUS BELIEF IN SUPERNATURAL POWERS

Besides the regular pilgrimages and fairs involved in the practice of their

faith by the orthodox, there is an irregular and superstitious but equally common form of both arising out of the cult of supernatural powers. This chiefly shows itself in worship at the tombs or shrines of bygone popular heroes, or even at the abodes of sanctified living personalities; and in this matter the Indian populations exhibit a remarkable unanimity. The stories related of departed or existing holy personages, and the acts of veneration thought advisable in order to secure their good offices, hardly vary. The venerated quick and dead can all grant desires, cure or induce disease, protect the sanctity of themselves or their abodes by miraculous deeds, and inflict injury on scoffers and unbelievers by uncanny means, and they are equally ready to shower mysterious blessings on devout followers. They vary in name, indeed, according to religion. To the Mohammedan they are saints; to the Hindu demigods, or simply demons and heroes; to the semi-civilized and the savage they are gods. But by whatever name they may be called and to whatever faith they may be attached, they are all fundamentally the same supernatural powers, with the same attributes and capacities, and are worshipped in the same way wherever one observes them. In fact they and their cult are alike survivals of the primeval animism, or spiritworship, of the populations prevalent in the ancient days before the foundation of even the oldest of the philosophies which the religious tendency of the human mind has imposed on the Indian peoples.

The ministers of these holy persons and places are wandering companies of bards, who visit the towns and villages, sing songs and epics, often couched in highly poetical language, tell stories to the people and inculcate the efficacy of the spiritual services of the particular masters they serve, until the names of these and the details of the tales about them become veritable household words. Such visitations are always welcome, and the oftener a story of this kind is told, and the more familiar it becomes, the greater the pleasure caused by it seems to be.

Holy men and alms giving

Another prominent feature of Indian daily life, which intrudes itself on the observation of all, is the prevalence of the ubiquitous mendicants, whether Hindu, Mohammedan, or freethinking. They are very numerous, belong to an immense number of petty sects, and go by many different names, but are alike in doing nothing for a living except preying on the superstitions of the people. For they are all "holy" in the sense that they are believed to be able to bring about wishes and desires and the fulfilment of hopes in some supernatural way. A common name for them is *fakir*, though this is an imported Mohammedan term, meaning "poor, without possessions, mendicant."

Eccentricity of appearance or habits is a part of their stock-in-trade, quite as much as the claim to supernatural powers. In this way they will do almost anything that will attract attention—go entirely naked, smear themselves with ashes, mutilate their bodies, lie on spikes, stand for years, stiffen their joints, sit between fires, wear any kind of extraordinary costume, live in silence or solitude, and so on. But whatever they are and whatever they do, they are an ever-present and real trouble, and a perpetual source of domestic excitement to the workaday householder and his female belongings.

Professional dancers

There is one point on which the orthodox Indian, Hindu or Moham-

AN INDIAN DANCING GIRL

These are strolling artists who may be engaged at the numerous festivals held to celebrate betrothals, marriages, etc.: they will perform throughout the night with a wearying monotony both in the posturing and accompaniment. The musical instruments possess three or four playing strings, and under these are stretched twelve to twenty-nine others.

medan, differs from the inhabitants of the Western world to such an extent that he cannot understand the European attitude towards it at all. To him, dancing is an amusement for viewing, not performing personally. The Indian dancer, so well known as the nautch (*nach*) girl, is a professional to the manner bred, and belongs to a recognized class or caste. That other men and women should care to dance together, as at a ball, is incomprehensible to the ordinary Indian, and he never really grasps the feeling that prompts the European so to behave. The performance of the nautch girl, on the other hand, though in truth very difficult of accomplishment, are to European eyes exceedingly dull and tame—merely a slow, unmeaning posturing by a woman so heavily clad as to be ungainly in her costume. There must be a charm about it, however, to the initiated, as a good performance will keep an Indian audience enthralled for hours, and celebrated dancers can command high prices. A current of religious feeling runs behind all this, and dancing girls are a privileged class in many senses, though their moral character is of the loosest. That they are a survival of a very ancient worship by dancing or conventional posturing is shown in their formal dedication to the art, and in many cases to particular temples, their special privileges and their peculiar superstitious practices.

TEMPLE GATEWAY, NAGASAKI

The stone lanterns in the foreground are quite striking as are the Tori in the background.

JAPAN AND KOREA

Off the western shores of the continent formed of Europe and Asia—lies the group of islands which form the British homeland. Off its opposite eastern shores, half-way round the world, lies another group of islands, a long chain of them, stretching from the tip of the huge, bare peninsula of Kamchatka to the tropical, half-civilized island of Formosa, off the coast of Central China. These islands form the Empire of Japan, more than three times as large as its counterpart of the West.

The Japanese often compare the shape of their country with that of a dragon-fly. Its body consists of the four chief islands that shut in the Sea of Japan; the two long feelers are Sakhalin—half of which belongs to Japan—and the Kurile Islands, which brush Kamchatka. The Lu-chu Islands and Formosa form a fine tail.

The part of the great continent that lies nearest the body of Japan is the peninsula of Korea, which separates the shallow Yellow Sea from the deep Sea of Japan. Korea, the Land of the Morning Calm, is as large as Great Britain, and, like its island neighbor, Japan, has a long history of its own, but not so long as that of China. The sun rising out of the Yellow Sea seems to have invested Japan with a sort of mysterious spirit during the past ages and the Chinese look to the East towards this Island Kingdom with something of awe.

And so Japan, this Land of the Rising Sun, came to be looked upon as a mysterious and sacred country, and its people proudly claim descent from the shadowy great ones. The beliefs which grew up round the old picturesque stories led, in course of time, to the national worship of unseen gods and spirits, of ancestors, and powers of Nature, which still has a strong hold in Japan. This religion is called Shintoism, a word that means "the way of the gods."

THE PEOPLE OF OLD JAPAN WHO WERE EVER DRIVEN BACKWARD BY INVADERS

It is generally thought that the first people, after the cave-dwellers, to settle in Japan were the Ainos, who came across the narrow sea from Siberia; and a delightful change they

must have found it in the southern islands, with their pleasant and warm climate, and beautiful, fertile country. The climate on the east coast of Japan is tempered by a warm stream from the south. The Ainos, however, were ever pushed back from the more desirable parts of the land by new-comers of higher civilization. Some were of Mongol race, like the Chinese, and came from the neighboring continent across the Sea of Japan, from Korea and what is now Russian and Chinese Manchuria.

Other new-comers came floating along the warm, dark stream from Southern Asia. These were of Malay race. Waves of these two races came time after time, and they are the true ancestors of the Japanese people, but the Ainos have never been driven entirely out of the country. There are still some thousands of them in North Japan, living apart from the other people. They are remarkable for their general hairiness.

They are a peaceable people, not caring for progress, but with many good qualities. They gain their living chiefly by fishing and hunting in the dense forests which harbor wild animals and game, in the northern island of Yezo.

A LINE OF EMPERORS THAT HAS RULED FOR MORE THAN 2500 YEARS

The Japanese keep many festivals; two of the principal ones are February 11 and April 3. On the first of these days they celebrate the accession of their earliest emperor, and on the second the day of his death. His name was Jimmu, and he is said to have lived more than twenty-five centuries ago. The Japanese claim that from him their one dynasty, or family, of emperors has ruled in unbroken succession ever since; but the dates for the first part of this long time are very uncertain. Still, we know that the Japanese were advancing in civilization, and the early independent tribes were steadily passing under the leadership of one dominant tribe.

The history of Korea too goes very far back. More than a thousand years before Christ, there was a migration of the old civilized Chinese into the mountainous peninsula. They ousted the cave-dwellers, and formed a cluster of independent states, which later united under one ruler. A great stream of Chinese and Koreans poured into Japan, and merged with its people during the centuries before and after the birth of Christ, and the name of a fabulous great Japanese empress, Jingo, stands out in the third century of our era as making many conquests in the land of Korea.

HOW THE MIKADO BECAME A SACRED FIGURE, HIDDEN FROM HIS PEOPLE

Nothing is certain about these early stories, except that there was much coming and going between the peninsula and the islands. We know that the Japanese, like the Chinese, busied themselves quite early with bringing water to their rice-fields, making canals and developing trade and manufactures. They also from the first paid great reverence to their ancestors. By degrees the person of the ruler, the Emperor, or Mikado, became sacred and unapproachable to the mass of the people, as was the case in China.

It was about the sixth century, when the Angles and Saxons were settling in their new homes in Britain, that the religion of Buddha spread into Japan by way of China and Korea. Eventually it took its place side by side with the older national religion of Shintoism, not driving it out, but supplementing it, as it were; and beautiful Buddhist temples, as well as Shinto shrines, rose up throughout the country.

Troublous times followed. There were many grades, or different kinds,

IN THIS MAP THE JAPANESE EMPIRE IS WITHIN THE DOTTED LINES

of nobility all fighting to be first, and many officers and ministers, into whose hands the real government of the kingdom passed, as the Mikado became more and more a mere puppet in a gilded prison, his person sacred and invisible, except to the highest officials. The head of the acting Government for 700 years was the Shogun. Yoritomo was the name of the first Shogun. He was a great general and organizer, and died the same year that King John ascended the throne of England. The last Shogun gave up his power, henceforth to live as a private gentleman, in 1868. He died in January, 1914, a highly honored citizen. The Japanese appreciate the fact that his abdicacy of the Shogunate probably saved their country from a disastrous civil war.

In many ways the state of affairs in Japan during the rule of the Shoguns may be compared to that of Britain before and during the Wars of the Roses. Quarrels between great rival families were fought out in pitched battles; nobles lived in their strong castles, surrounded by armed retainers called samurai, and when a common foe arose, those who held the land were

bound to provide forces to meet the danger, very much in the same way as was done in England in feudal times.

One of these times of national danger arose towards the end of the thirteenth century, when Kublai Khan, the Mongol Emperor of China, with a great host of Chinese and Koreans, invaded Japan. As with the Spanish Armada off the coast of Britain, the great host was destroyed by a storm, and the island empire of Japan can boast, that no invader has since tried to descend on its shores.

We remember how Marco Polo stayed at the court of Kublai Khan. Naturally, he heard much of Japan, and when he returned to his native country, he was persuaded to write a book about his wonderful travels. In it he introduced Japan to Europe, thereby greatly exciting and interesting his readers. He called it "Cipango," and said it "is a large island towards the east of "Cathay," in the high seas. And a very great island it is. The people are white, civilized, and well favored. They are idolaters, dependent on nobody. And I can tell you," continues Marco, with many more interesting details, "the gold they have is endless, for they find it in their own lands."

In the map used by Columbus, two centuries later, this rich island was drawn large on the east of Asia, with no American continent between it and Europe. As to Korea, very little was known about it in those days.

THE ANCIENT PIRATES OF JAPAN, WHO SAILED THEIR JUNKS TO AMERICA

At those times, when men were reaching out to find each other, and to discover new countries all over the world, there were pirates on every sea. The Japanese were not behind in daring acts, and their junks faced the seas fearlessly, passing to Siam, to India, and even to Mexico.

It was not long after the death of Columbus that the Portuguese found by an eastward route what he had tried in vain to find by sailing westward. From the rich Indies they passed to China, and thence to Japan. Christian missionaries soon followed the traders and explorers. The famous Jesuit, Francis Xavier, managed to get a footing in the southern island of Kiushiu, and conducted, under difficulties, a short but brilliant mission. He says in his letters home that the Japanese "are wonderfully inclined to see all that is good, and have an eagerness to learn."

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, Nagasaki, the chief southern port, with its fine harbor, where the largest Portuguese ships could ride at anchor, became a Christian city. Christian churches were built on the sites of old Buddhist temples; but the progress of the new religion was stopped before long. A great soldier of fortune, Hideyoshi, rose to the highest power. He is often called the Napoleon of Japan, so great were his victories. He conquered Korea, and even planned the invasion of China.

A GENERAL WHOSE DESCENDANTS RULED JAPAN FOR 250 YEARS

His successor, also a great general, overthrew all his rivals, and founded a dynasty of Shoguns that ruled a united Japan in peace for 250 years. To secure this peace, the Catholic missions and the foreign traders were sent away, and the country was closed to all but the Dutch; under narrow limits they alone were allowed to trade at Nagasaki. Some of the most beautiful Japanese work is to be seen at the Hague, gifts from the Mikados of those days. Very little about Japan was known in England during the reigns of the Stuarts and the Hanoverians.

It was in the middle of the last century that there came a great and

wonderful change. Japan had gone on all those peaceful years making improvements in the produce of the country, in the fields, in the tea-gardens, in the hand-looms, in the pottery factories, and in many other arts in which the people are so skilful and tasteful. But discontent was smouldering, and a longing to expand was growing in the hearts of the people.

When the bold Captain Perry arrived with a United States fleet, to insist on pulling down the barriers which had kept Japan away so long from the rest of the world, the old system seemed to fall at a blow. Treaties with various Powers were signed, Yokohama was opened to foreign trade, the Shogun retired, and the Mikado was restored to the full and ancient powers of his office, reigning over the people in fact as well as in name.

Japan's great leap from the sleep of centuries into the life of today

It makes us almost breathless to read of the rapid changes that have taken place in Japan during the last seventy years. Once in contact with the West, there were no half-measures. The old feudal ways were swept away in most dramatic fashion, as Japan leaped out of the Middle Ages into the full stream of modern life with its newest inventions and movements. Japanese came westwards to learn new ways, and received instructors and organizers from the United States and Europe in their own country. Roads were improved and bridges built; railways, telegraphs, telephones, were started all over the country. Banks, warehouses, mills, and factories rose up quickly, law courts were established as well as a constitution, granted in 1889, which gave a House of Commons elected by the people.

Education on modern Western lines has been started everywhere; Western fashions in dress and manners have been largely adopted. An efficient navy and army have been created within a few years. They were needed, for besides all the astounding upheaval and amount of work and expense involved in all the home changes, Japan has had to face two wars with its opposite neighbors. The first, with China, was in 1894 and 1895. Six months decided the contest, Japan being victorious on sea and land. The island of Formosa was added to the Mikado's empire, and the world saw that a new power had arisen to help to shape the destiny of the Far East.

Japan's victorious struggle with the great power of Russia

Japan joined the European Powers in the relief of Peking at the time of the Boxer rebellion, and four years later found herself in the throes of a gigantic contest with Russia. We remember how the Russian troops poured eastwards by the new Siberian Railway, and how awful were the losses and sufferings of the men on both sides. Admiral Togo, often called the Japanese Nelson, destroyed the Russian Navy in the inner part of the Yellow Sea; and on land the successes were equally great.

Every Japanese boy is brought up to believe that the greatest honor that can befall him is to die for his emperor and country if need be, and his body is trained by a wonderful system of resisting gymnastics. His courage is matched by his sense of honor as to the sacredness of his promise and the impossibility of yielding while life lasts, and so it is no wonder that the flag of the Rising Sun was carried triumphantly from start to finish in such strong hands. Japan gained half the island of Sakhalin by this war, and established a sort of protectorate in Korea. It was understood that there would be

a Japanese resident in Korea, that the Japanese citizens would manage the railways, the posts and other matters of importance in the country. But in what has appeared to be a breach of this treaty, the Japs have actually occupied Korea recently as a Japanese Province and it is believed that it is now permanently a part of the Japanese Empire.

Taking steamer from Nagasaki, we can visit the ancient and interesting country, delightful in spring and autumn, which has for centuries been so connected with both China and Japan. There is a railway from its chief port, Chemulpo, to the capital, Seul, which is shut in by a wall and eight gateways, like Peking on a small scale. There are many interesting buildings, a marble pagoda and a bell tower, temples and tombs. The saddest sight is the vast deserted palace—deserted because the Korean empress was killed there in the course of the war.

The Korean people are poor and spiritless, and for long paid tribute to their powerful neighbors to let them alone. The valleys are very fertile, and crops of various kinds are raised. There are large forests and the metals are believed to be very abundant; but there is still much to do in developing the resources of the country. The Japanese are a very artistic people naturally as is evinced by the remarkable skill they have shown in their various watercolors, embroidery, pottery and enamel ware. It must be said, however, that they have very artistic landscapes and views for the subjects of their work—scenery which has offered inspiration to many a Western painter of recent years.

JAPAN, THE LAND OF DAZZLING BLOSSOMS AND FAIRY LANDSCAPES

Public holidays are set apart for people to go out and admire the fruit-trees in flower, the cherry, and plum, and peach blossoms. Men travel miles to visit the great fields of irises and lilies, all most delightful to the eye. Many of our favorite flowers come to us from Japan; but there the purple wistaria hangs in profusion over great trellises, the camellia-trees grow as high as a house, and the masses of roses, convolvulus, and azaleas form dazzling banks of color. The tall bamboos, so useful as well as ornamental, and high, feathery grasses, graceful cryptomeria and lacquer-trees, all help to make up the real fairy landscapes of which we get hints on the screens and fans and embroideries worked and painted by those who live within sight of these beauties of Nature.

We can perhaps match most of the fine mountains and the leaping, foaming waterfalls, the rich plains and valleys and the short rivers that water them, but we have nothing to compare with the mysterious wonder of Fuji-yama, the sacred mountain so deeply beloved by the Japanese and reproduced by hundreds of their artists. It rises, solemn and lonely and grand, in a beautiful cone-like shape nearly three miles above the plain, and it is more than a hundred miles round its base.

FUJI-YAMA, THE FAMOUS JAPANESE MOUNTAIN THREE MILES HIGH

The mountain is near the sea, and not far from the capital of the empire, Tokio. Kipling calls it "the keynote of Japan," so great is its impressiveness as one enters the bay, especially if its top is covered with snow. This melts only in August and September. On its lower slopes is every sort of beautiful vegetation.

It takes many hours to climb the three miles of its height, even with the help of coolies; but what a view from the top! Over fertile plains and glinting water, to mountains beyond. This

TEA HOUSE GIRLS

Typical waitresses of the Tea Houses which form such an important part of Japanese life.

LITTLE JAPANESE GIRL

Little Japanese girl resting from her play. She wears wooden shoes but it is amazing to see the rapidity with which she can run with them.

ASAKUSA PARK, TOKIO

This is one of the larger parks of the great metropolis to which the populace goes for recreation.

climb of three miles into the air gives us an idea of the changes in vegetation to be seen with a difference in altitude. At the top of the mountain the climate is that of the tundra, or bog-land; below that come the low, stunted trees. Below them we come to pine forests, then grassy lands and steppes, then all the crops that grow in warmer regions —barley, beans, peas, tea, cotton, and rice.

From the heights of Fuji-yama we can see another important mountain, the active volcano Asama-yama. Most of the Japanese mountains are extinct volcanoes, but Fuji-yama still sends up a little jet of steam, and many earthquakes take place, often causing terrible damage and loss of life. This is one reason why houses are very lightly built in the Mikado's country. Early in 1914 a volcano, Sakura-jima, situated on a little island in the Bay of Kago Shima erupted very violently—the falling ashes and pumice stone affecting the entire island of Kiushiu on which the large seaport of Nagasaki is located. Probably several thousand people were killed and thousands were made homeless, while the violent earthquakes destroyed most of the large buildings in the adjacent towns.

There are a great number of large towns in Japan, several with tens and hundreds of thousands of inhabitants. Tokio, the capital, on the largest island, Nippon, or Honshiu, contains a population of over one and a half millions.

THE SPLENDID TEMPLES AND THE FAIR PALACE IN THE JAPANESE CAPITAL

The temples and tombs of the Shoguns form one of the great sights of this picturesque city, with its avenues of cherry-trees. The Imperial Palace is here, too, with its crystal chambers and beautiful ceilings and brocades. In November thousands of people congregate to see the magnificent chrysanthemum shows. The flowers are much larger and more beautiful than those we are accustomed to see in America. The distances are so long in the large cities that jinrikishas are greatly in request. Coolies or laborers, run them swiftly about, even on the country roads.

Yokohama, the port of Tokio, is the place where most visitors land. Here is the tomb of Yoritomo, the first Shogun, and a few miles away at Kama Kura is the great bronze image of Buddha, one of the greatest of Japanese works of art. It is nearly fifty feet high, and leaves a wonderful impression of peace and majesty on the mind.

The Japanese have a proverb: "Do not use the word magnificent till you have seen Nikko." This is not only a most beautiful town, but it includes a whole mountain district, about 2000 feet above the sea. Cascades and autumn tints and thick vegetation of every kind are among the natural beauties, and there are deeply interesting tombs of Shoguns and saints, and splendid Buddhist temples.

This religious center is located up in the mountains in the middle of a dense forest of cryptomeria, or sort of pine trees. We have none of these trees in the Western hemisphere, but geology tells us that thousands of centuries ago they existed in our country; this has been discovered from the finding of their remains in various coal deposits throughout the American continent.

THE HARBOR CITY THAT HAS ALWAYS LINKED JAPAN WITH THE WEST

The island of Kiushiu, on which Nagasaki, with its landlocked harbor and granite docks, is situated, has played a large part in the country's story. Legend has it that from here Jimmu and Jingo set forth on their heroic expeditions. Upon this island the Portuguese traders and mission-

NOGI STREET, YOKOHAMA

A typica street of that great seaport showing the contrast of the modern appearing telegraph poles with the picturesque Japanese buildings.

aries landed, and European civilization was first made known to the Japanese. During the time that Japan was closed it was Nagasaki that was the only port opened to the West.

A GREAT CITY THAT HAS GROWN IN A FEW YEARS FROM A FISHING VILLAGE

Since the door has been flung wide open, Kobe, on the beautiful inland sea, has grown from a fishing village into a large and bright city, where most of the home trade is carried on, and foreign firms are well represented. We can take the train along the lovely shores of this Mediterranean of Japan between Nippon and the two smaller southern islands; or better still pass on our way from Nagasaki in a steamer through the deep, clear, blue water from end to end, passing countless islands and hills clothed in vivid green; and there is ever the living interest of the numerous fishing boats, and curious-looking junks, and the tiny villages hidden in unexpected nooks. For an ocean-going vessel however, this passage is dangerous, for the current is treacherous and the turns sharp. There is practically never a time when there are not two or three wrecks strewn along the banks of this narrow waterway.

Osaka is another manufacturing center near the inland sea, and is renowned for its beautiful temple and fine bazars. It has been called the "Chicago" of Japan, and despite the fact that it has suffered in recent years from two terrible fires which have practically destroyed it, it still holds its place as the chief manufacturing center of the Japanese Archipelago. By Osaka flows the river that drains Lake Biwa, the largest lake in Japan, about the size of Lake Geneva, and, like it, very beautiful. It is a grand

The interest manifested in a Japanese public character shows that curiosity is no less concealed in the makeup of the Oriental in Nippon than the Occidental of New York. The central figure is a woman of rank, as can be seen from her attendants, the magnificence of her attire, and the attention of the onlookers.

sight on a warm summer night to see the crowds of people enjoying the pleasures of boating, the music on the water, and the dancing light from thousands of lanterns. Refreshments are taken in the tea houses on its shores.

From Osaka we can take the train to Kioto, an old capital of Japan, famous for its wonderful architecture and interesting memories. The Mikado's old palace here covers many acres of ground.

The city is one of the largest in Japan with about a million inhabitants. It occupies a broad level valley and is situated not far from one of the famous Japanese lakes. It is the ancient capital of the Empire and it is within the memory of the present inhabitants that the government seat has been moved to Tokio.

THE WORKERS IN THE CITIES AND THE WORKERS IN THE FIELDS

In these and other great towns we find many of Japan's millions of inhabitants, both the ruling classes and busy workers. Many are engaged in the fields, for agriculture is actively carried on in Japan, as in China, and occupies many hands. Thousands are employed in the fisheries on the seas, lakes, and rivers, for fish is very plentiful and is one of the chief articles of food. Tall, smoking chimneys are rapidly rising in many industrial centers in Japan, but the work of the greatest beauty, which has influenced so much the taste of the West, has been done from time immemorial by the patient, delicate handwork of men and women who are born artists.

Tea-growing and silk-weaving were introduced from China many hundreds of years ago. Fine porcelain made from abundant supplies of kaolin, a fine white clay, is of world renown; carpets, baskets, beautiful lacquer work known as Satsuma, on trays and boxes, every variety of fans and lanterns, and endless things for ornament and use are all made in Japan.

Unfortunately we seldom see the more expensive real Japanese articles in the West. We have too often only poor imitations.

HOW WE HAVE COPIED JAPAN'S DRESS AND JAPAN HAS COPIED OURS

Western dress has been adopted at court and in the army and navy, and in many circles; but the kimono, so familiar to us in dressing-gown shape, and in the popular musical opera of the "Mikado," is still the distinctive garment of the country, made in gorgeous embroidered silks and satins for the rich, and in very simple materials for the poor. It is worn with a broad sash, and serves, with the deep kimono sleeves, instead of pockets.

Japanese footwear is quite different from ours. There is a thick white sock, with a division for the great toe, worn with the shoe or clog, which is taken off on entering a house, so as not to soil the mats used as seats, for a Japanese house is very simple, with scarcely any furniture. Often the greater part of the house is made of wood or tough paper, and the partition walls are simply sliding doors. Paper serves for umbrellas and waterproofs, when a cloak made of thatch is not available.

The beds are made of thick quilts laid on the floor, with wooden pillows, all being moved away in the daytime. Everything in a Japanese home is most tastefully arranged to give pleasure to the eye, and all is very clean.

Perhaps Japanese children have the happiest time of any children in the world. Their fathers and mothers are devoted to them, and train them from babyhood to be self-controlled and polite to everyone; to be gentle in their ways, and to be fond of work.

The automobile has not yet displaced the ox for street traffic. He is provided with straw sandals and, in warm weather, a sunshade. His trappings are gay in color, especially at New Year's time.

The exterior of Japanese theaters is gaily decorated with flags, lanterns and posters. A restaurant is always an important feature of the establishment, as the play continues from ten in the morning until ten at night.

And all this lays the foundation of lifelong happiness. Spoiled, selfish, idle, cross, and miserable children are rarely met with in Japan. They have plenty of lessons and plenty of play. And toys! We all know the delights of Japanese dolls—the children are so like them—and the tops and kites, and wonderful model villages. There are many feast days specially for the children, when all are dressed in their brightest kimonos and sashes, and look as gay as the flowers and butterflies.

The feast of dolls is for the girls, when the "honorable" dolls and the dolls'-houses, so carefully kept from generation to generation, are brought out and enjoyed, and the little ones have presents of dolls and dainty articles for their use. The boys have their turn on the Feast of Flags, when images of soldiers, heroes, wrestlers are bought for them, as well as helmets, flags, bows and arrows. The sham fight, which is a favorite game on this festival, brings to memory the fights of the rival clans in the old feudal days.

Kite-flying and top-spinning done in really scientific fashion are grand pastimes, joined in by quite old men.

The dead are never forgotten in Japan. Every summer the Feast of the Dead is celebrated all over the country, with processions, the carrying of fans and banners, and the tombs are illuminated with beautiful lanterns shedding many-colored lights. The end of the feast at Nagasaki is very striking. After midnight thousands of little ships of straw, carrying small offerings of fruit and money and the lighted lanterns from the tombs, are launched on the waters of the bay. As each little craft catches fire, the soul it is supposed to carry is said to have reached again the Unseen Land.

The Japanese visit the temples and shrines very much, and honor thousands of gods. Very often they make pilgrimages to distant shrines. The pilgrim bound for Fuji-yama is known by his white kimono and large straw hat. The average tourist in visiting Japan lands at Yokohama. He takes an hour's ride to the village of Kamakura where the most famous "Diabuts" or image of Buddha is located. This image is about 35 feet in height, of bronze about three inches thick, and one can ascend in the interior up into the head where there is a small image and shrine. Tokio is distant only ten miles from Yokohama and when it has been visited and a trip made to Nikko, the average traveler turns south, taking the railroad around the foot of the famous Fuji-yama, the trademark of the Japanese, soon reaching Kyoto. From there he travels south for about one hour to Osaka and then further down to Kobe.

One of the most interesting trips in the Land of the Rising Sun is by rickisha from Kobe south along the banks of the inland sea, crossing at the end and taking the train to Nagasaki. The Japanese are very appreciative of what they have learned in our countries of this hemisphere, and one finds English spoken on every side making travel comparatively easy.

There are memories that never leave one who has visited Japan—memories of the swiftly whirling rickishas, the picturesque little shops, the passing crowds, and the clattering of wooden shoes over the stone pavements—memories distinct and apart from those of any other country.

MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA, THE LINK THAT JOINS TWO CONTINENTS

FAVORITE PASTIME IN THE "LAND OF TO-MORROW"

Popocatepetl, the great "smoking mountain" of the Cordilleras

MEXICO—LAND OF ADVENTURE AND REVOLUTION

YOU doubtless have sailed in imagination with Columbus about the Caribbean Sea, and pictured to yourselves the clear water and the lovely islands and shores that enclose it. We now want you to pass into the neighboring gulf, to mount into the country of Mexico, to look closer at the irregularly shaped bridge of land, Central America, that joins the great north and south continents of the New World.

Let us look carefully at the shape of the gulf, into which the Father of Waters, the Mississippi, and the Great River of the North, the Rio Grande del Norte, pour the southern drainage of North America. The two peninsulas of Yucatan and Florida shut it in like doors, and Cuba lies between them. Columbus, in his journal, wrote of Cuba: "This is the most beautiful island eyes ever beheld. One could live here forever."

Let us notice, too, the way in which the vast bulk of North America tapers through Mexico to Central America. We must next make sure that we see clearly that Central America consists of four narrow isthmuses, with bulging masses of land between them. The most important of the four are Tehuantepec, 125 miles across, where North America ends, though Yucatan and a small neighboring state are included in Mexico, and Panama, only about 35 miles across, beyond which South America begins. Then let us pause for a moment's thought about the mighty mountain chain stretching, under different names, for thousands of miles from Alaska in the far north, to the extreme tip of the pear-shaped southern continent. There are many volcanoes in this long chain, especially about the middle of it, in Central America and Mexico. At Panama the great heights sink to about 3000 feet, and the pass, or saddle, between these low mountains is less than 300 feet high. To the west of the mountains lies the vast expanse of the Pacific Ocean.

Four hundred years ago no one could have given this simple description of the position of Mexico and Central America. Columbus died fully believing that the land he discovered was part of Asia; it was only by degrees, as his successors cruised about the low-lying shores of the gulf and the sea, as they caught glimpses

of the ocean beyond, as they sought, ever in vain, to find a way for their ships through Central America to that ocean, that the truth came to them that they were not on the fringe of Asia, but on a great continent which lay between them and their desires.

THE GOLDEN LAND THAT LAY BEYOND THE WESTERN SEAS

Wonderful rumors spread by these adventurous spirits soon reached Cuba, one of the first islands settled by the Spaniards. There were stories of massive temples and great stone idols; of large towns with thousands of busy workers; of people with rich clothes and great possessions in gold and silver and jewels.

All these, they said, were to be found inland from the shores of the gulf. Daring deeds were daily occurrences in the sixteenth century, but one of the most romantic and desperate expeditions ever planned and carried out was that of the brilliant Spanish commander, Cortes, to test the truth of these rumors, and to annex whatever he might find for his emperor, Charles the Fifth of Spain, just twenty years after the death of Columbus.

Eleven ships, carrying 400 Europeans, 200 natives, 16 horses, and 14 guns, seems but a small force with which to attempt a passage into an unknown land. But Cortes, who wrote history with his sword, knew no fear, and pushed forward in spite of all obstacles. We long to follow him every foot of the way, but must be content with glimpses of his bravery and dash; with the mere mention of the shipwrecked captive Spaniard and the lovely native girl who acted as interpreters.

As the wonderful story unfolds, we see the founding of the port of the True Cross—Vera Cruz—the friendliness of the tribes near the coast, the famous beaching and burning of all the ships, save one, that had brought the expedition, so that none could retreat.

THE WONDERS OF THE LAND OF ROMANCE TO WHICH CORTES LED HIS MEN

The best one was spared to send home to Spain with news and specimens of the work and treasures of the country. There is a case of treasures, such as Cortes sent home, in the American Room of the British Museum; among them are wonderful masks in turquoise mosaic, a crystal skull, a two-headed blue serpent, and some most interesting picture writing. On and on toiled the party from the hot, unhealthy lands by the sea, with its tangle of tropical vegetation, up the rugged country which leads by high terrace steps to the great plateau of Mexico, 7000 feet and more above the level of the sea.

What a treat was the pure, cool air, the grand sight of the snow-topped volcanoes before them, and how astonished were the travelers at the prickled cactus hedges, and the cultivated fields and fine forests and lakes, and the wealth of bright flowers on every side! Surely the plateau and its ridges of mountains must have reminded the Spaniards of their far-away home country, and given them courage to venture on, so as to add to her dominions and glory.

Montezuma, the ruler of this fair country belonging to the Aztec or Mexican race, had more than once sent presents and messages to Cortes, begging him to go away. But Cortes went steadily on till he reached the city of Tenochtitlan, the ancient city of Mexico, on the great lakes that lay in the midst of the plateau.

THE TERROR OF THE AZTECS WHEN THE WHITE MEN CAME AMONG THEM

The Aztecs were terrified at the pale faces of the Spaniards, at the horses

and guns, none of which they had seen before, and they seem almost to have believed that Cortes was the white war-god of their legends come back as he had promised centuries before, for the guns appeared to them to flash lightning, and the horses to travel like the wind. If Cortes was disappointed with Tenochtitlan, he did not say so in his letters home, but enlarged on the glory and splendor of the city, its temples and buildings, its cypress-crowned hill, Chapultepec, with its magnificent view.

It was not long before Cortes got Montezuma entirely into his power. So great was the tact and resource of the great commander, that it seemed as if all were about to be peaceably arranged for the transfer of the country and its government. But Cortes had to return for a time to Vera Cruz, and his deputy at Tenochtitlan enraged the Aztec people with his cruelty. Cortes returned only just in time to save his forces from utter destruction.

Montezuma, still a prisoner, was persuaded by the Spaniards to speak to his subjects, and urge them to stay their attack on the strangers. An impressive sight he must have looked standing on the flat roof of the palace, dressed in his blue and white mantle, his blazing jewels, fine crown, and golden sandals dazzling in the sun. But the moment of surprised stillness caused by his appearance passed, and the furious people, refusing to listen longer, flung arrows and stones in a great tumult. Montezuma—their king—was fatally wounded during this encounter. The day after his death, when things looked black indeed for the Spaniards, Cortes cut his way out of the capital in the darkness. This was known as the "sad night." Men and horses perished in numbers on the narrow path by the waters of the canal and lake, and, when the remnant gathered together in the country beyond, Cortes wept tears of despair.

But the genius of the leader shone only the brighter for this check. Somehow he managed to rally his forces, and within a week he utterly defeated the brave Aztecs, who came out to withstand him. They fled in confusion, more than ever convinced that he must be a god, and not a mere man. Within eight months, by means of help from neighboring tribes, and by unheard-of efforts in organizing an army and arranging for its keep and transport, the beautiful plateau of Mexico, with its ruined capital, Tenochtitlan, was under the power of Cortes. When the town rose again by the lake, it was as the City of Mexico.

The country, for awhile, was put under military rule, and became part of the huge dominions which so oppressed the weary emperor, Charles the Fifth, of Spain, Austria and the Netherlands. Cortes was not content with these successes. He made many explorations in Central America, always hoping to find a way through to the Pacific.

By degrees more colonies for Spain were founded, in Yucatan and Honduras, and in other parts of the land whose secrets were revealed by the energy of the great commander and his officers. Cortes even pushed up the long narrow Gulf of California, and before long the Spaniards had also found their way far beyond the plateau of Mexico in all directions. The history of the peoples whom the Spaniards found in Mexico and Central America has not yet been fully unraveled. Scholars are still at work studying the wonderful ruins of temples that are discovered from time to time, the carvings on great stone idols and altars, and the picture writing

on various relics. Some of these we can see for ourselves in museums, and interesting it is indeed to trace resemblances in them to the work of other countries, such as Egypt and Babylon and China.

THE MYSTERY OF THE FIRST PEOPLE WHO SETTLED IN AMERICA

Where the first people came from to settle in America, we know not, but the remains found on the soil show that through the long centuries before the vast lands were discovered by Europeans, different races of people had lived and died on them for generation after generation. Sometimes they destroyed the works of those who went before them; sometimes they grafted their own stock and works upon those of their predecessors. In time we hope to understand more about these shadowy tribes, about the Toltecs and their interesting legends, about the Mayas and their high civilization, about the Aztecs and their curious picture writing, and their settlements on the plateau of Mexico after centuries of wandering.

When Cortes went to Honduras, he passed, all unknowingly, a wonderful palace of the Mayas, hidden by the thick growth of trees and shrubs. As relics are found they are carefully studied, with a view to trace the various customs, beliefs, and histories of the old peoples and tribes who for many hundreds of years had been making progress in civilization, not only unknown to the dwellers in the Old World, but equally strange and unknown in many cases to other dwellers in their own world, which we have come to call the New.

THE GREAT ZEAL OF THE SPANIARDS TO CONVERT THE HEATHEN AZTECS

As we know, the Spaniards classed the natives they found in the New World all together under the mistaken names of Indians. Now the civilization and conversion to the Christian faith of these so-called Indians was one of the chief objects of the Spanish conquerors. Bands of devoted missionaries went out from Europe to the new possessions to teach the natives to give up their wild, roving life and the heathen customs of their religion, such as offering human sacrifices to idols.

Cortes himself did his best to persuade Montezuma to accept Christianity, but the Aztec chief was only puzzled by the new ideas so hastily thrust upon him. Everywhere, in the first zeal of overthrowing heathenism, idols and temples, inscriptions and carvings were cast down, buried, defaced; so that the task of finding out the truth about the past has been made even harder than it might have been.

But, deep as is the wonder and interest of the story of the old New World, of the early peoples in Mexico and Central America, as shown by the works of their hands, romantic as is the story of the introduction of the natives to the Spaniards, the growth of the country under Spain is still more interesting; and even more thrilling and romantic than the conquest of Cortes are the events of the last hundred years.

THE TERRIBLE CRUELTIES OF THE SPANISH CONQUERORS IN AMERICA

As the years passed on the native races settled down, after many difficulties, under the new religion and the new rulers. The burning of victims, under the terrible Inquisition of the Christians, must have seemed to the Mexicans strangely like the sacrifices offered to the cruel gods of their forefathers, and all sorts of superstitions belonging to the old faith were grafted on to the new. Viceroys were sent out from Spain during three centuries to govern, or misgovern, in the king's name; sixty-four of them in all.

SPANISH AND FRENCH INVADERS OF MEXICO

There is scarcely another story in all history so romantic as that of the Spanish conquest of Mexico in the sixteenth century. With an army of 400 European soldiers and 16 horses, both of which numbers were afterwards slightly increased Cortes, the Spanish commander, set out to conquer a mighty empire. He had to meet a whole nation in arms; but when disaster seemed certain, Cortes, by ability and skill, routed the Mexican army at the famous battle of Otumba, as shown here, and later subdued the whole country for his king.

More than three centuries after the Spanish conquest of Mexico the country was again invaded. The Emperor Napoleon III. of France, making the unjust treatment of foreigners in Mexico an excuse, intervened in 1862, and forced an emperor of his own choosing, the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, upon the country. In 1867, however, the French troops had to withdraw from Mexico and some time after Maximilian was shot by order of the republican commander. We see here the French army, under Marshal Bazaine, entering the city of Mexico.

Some were good and kind, some terribly the reverse. Throughout these years the missionary priests were hard at work trying to influence the natives towards a spirit of quiet obedience; the religion they offered them did not teach them to think for themselves. Many beautiful towns were founded after Spanish models, with Spanish names and fine cathedrals; schools and colleges rose up in them, and Spanish families went out to make new homes in the Far West.

Roads and bridges made travel and trade easier. As agriculture was extended and improved, mining and forestry were developed, and the raising of cattle then became an important industry.

Both Mexico and Central America offer vast possibilities in all these directions. In the tropical lowlands, rice, sugar, cocoa, and cotton grow easily. On the rising terraces, coffee, maize, and tobacco find suitable conditions, and wheatfields lead up to the grassy downs, which make good pasture land for the cattle and the splendid horses, for which the country gradually became famous as the years went by.

The vast natural riches found in the forests and mines of Mexico

The magnificent forests abound with every valuable kind of tree, from the rubber tree to the mahogany. As for the mines, Mexico is rich in various kinds of metal—silver, gold, copper, and lead, among many others. Sulphur is obtained from the crater of the smoking mountain, Popocatepetl. Another remarkable volcano is Jorullo, thrown up by an earthquake in a single night in 1759, from fertile fields of sugar and indigo.

In time, many Spaniards intermarried with the natives, particularly in Central America; and so many great men of these countries are descended from the conquered, as well as from the conquerors, and a large mixed nation has grown up, with a certain number of pure-blooded Spaniards at the top of society, and many natives "of no account" at the bottom. New Spain gradually came to include nearly all the country round the Gulf of Mexico, and reached out northward to California, though the outlying districts were very thinly peopled.

Spain ever needed all she could get out of her distant provinces, for her wars at home were constant in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Under some viceroys the taxes were excessive, and the people were oppressed in order to send riches to Spain; but under other viceroys the rule was milder, and sometimes even indulgent.

How Hidalgo began the struggle that ended in Mexico's freedom

When the feeling of revolt against tyranny was voiced in different countries, and the longing for independence and freedom ever grew stronger, until it found expression in the American and French Revolutions, Mexico, too, realized its hardships. A time of struggle began against rule from overseas, which lasted for many years. Hidalgo, born five years after the Boston tea-party, was one of the first Mexicans to say boldly that he wanted Mexico to be Mexico, not a helpless dependency of Spain.

When he and his little band of friends dared to raise their banner with the cry, "Up with true religion; down with false government!" it was an unheard-of thing that any ordinary man of the country—not appointed by Spain to office—should venture even to express an opinion. Hidalgo, a poor priest and a man of the people boldly worked for government by the people. The end of a most exciting campaign of nine months was ap-

parent failure, for Hidalgo and his companions were taken prisoners and shot, and their heads for ten years remained fixed on spikes at the corners of a large building in Guanajuato, a rich and flourishing city in the second largest mining province in Mexico.

THE SAD END OF THE HEROES WHO TRIED TO SET MEXICO FREE

The people who lived in those times no doubt thought Hidalgo had failed. We who live a hundred years later know that he succeeded gloriously in awakening his countrymen, and preparing the ground for the great struggle that was coming. Today, in front of the building where his dead lips preached to all that passed by, there now stands a bronze statue of "Hidalgo, the first liberator of his country."

The next great name is that of Morelos, who, three years after the execution of Hidalgo, was leading the Independents from victory to victory, on the Pacific coast, in the picturesque country of lower levels, shaded with the banana and orange trees, and on the higher plateau, taking towns or defending them, forming a congress, and sending out a declaration of independence, as their northern neighbors had done a generation before.

But the tide turned, and in 1815, six months after Napoleon lost his last battle, Morelos, who had much of the ability, without the opportunities, of the Upsetter of the Peace of Europe, was in his turn taken prisoner and shot. The Royalists hoped that now the troublesome new ideas were stamped out. How little they knew! The heroic, patriotic Morelos, whom they treated with insult and shot, is now adored by the Mexican people. They know that the attention of the mass of the people, first awakened by Hidalgo, was fully aroused by the life and sacrifice of Morelos. He showed them, as well as the world looking on, that the old Mexican blood was capable of great deeds, and that freedom for the country was no mere dream.

We look in vain on the map for the city in which he was born under the name it bore at that time, Valladolid, for it has since been renamed "Morelia," after its greatest citizen. One of the states of the Mexican union also bears his name.

For some time after the death of Morelos, ideas of independence worked and grew chiefly in secret, in the mountains and in far-off spots. Presently a change came about, which gave the Mexicans a chance to ask for more freedom.

THE JOY WHEN MEXICO WAS AT LAST FREED FROM THE YOKE OF SPAIN

When the king of Spain was obliged to give way to liberal demands in the mother country, to abolish the hated Inquisition, to give freedom to the Press, great rejoicings took place in the colonies, and a new leader appeared on the scene—Yturbide, of Mexican blood, hitherto an officer in the Royalist army. A wide-spread revolution burst out all over the country, in which not only the insurgents took part, but many of the Spanish as well as Mexican chiefs, who declared for independence.

Yturbide hastened to meet the last governor ever sent from Spain at Vera Cruz, and soon convinced him that his services were not needed as viceroy. The outcome of their conference was the Treaty of Cordova, which settled the independence of Mexico. Yturbide made a triumphal entry into the capital at the head of the Independents, and so ended, amid scenes of wild enthusiasm and rejoicings, the Spanish rule three hundred years after the arrival of Cortes.

The present national flag, with its white for purity, green for union, red

for independence, stands for the three articles of the national faith settled at this time. The device of the eagle and serpent on a cactus bush refers to an old story connected with the settlement of the old Aztec tribes on the plateau. Many Spaniards went home now, and opinions were greatly divided among those who remained as to whether the government should be a monarchy or a republic. Yturbide, who had much love of splendor and state, as well as personal ambition, managed to have himself declared Emperor of Mexico, but only retained the position for a few months.

THE MAN WHO MADE HIMSELF EMPEROR AND WAS SENTENCED TO BE SHOT

In the end he, too, was sentenced to be shot; but when angry feeling had subsided, his faults and failings were forgotten, and his countrymen recognized that it was his act that had freed Mexico from the control of Spain. Over the house of his birthplace—he was a fellow-townsman of Morelos—is the inscription: Libertador de Mexico, meaning Liberator of Mexico.

A very confused time followed. Revolutions and different forms of constitutions and plans of government rapidly followed each other. There was one man, whose name stands out in the confusion, who was mixed up in every event of these troublous years. This was Santa Anna, first making his name as a soldier fighting in the wars of independence and expelling the Royalists from Vera Cruz, when Spain made its first and last attempt to win back Mexico. He was elected president in 1833.

It was about that time that troubles began with Texas, a district as large as France, on the Gulf of Mexico. Three hundred families had gone to colonize it from Mexico a few years before, and a large number of Americans had also settled there on grants of land. An insurrection against the oppressive Mexican government broke out, which ended in Texas becoming independent for a period of about ten years, and then it was annexed to the United States by treaty, and admitted to the union very soon after.

THE WAR BETWEEN MEXICO AND THE UNITED STATES ABOUT TEXAS

We remember how many people in the United States were against this union, because the laws of Texas allowed slavery; also many people in the States thought a war with Mexico would follow if Texas were annexed, as Mexico had never given up hope of reconquering that state. These opponents were soon seen to be right and Mexico and the United States were quickly at war. In due time, also, the annexation of so much slave country upset the balance in the United States, and brought on, some years later, the dreadful Civil War between North and South, which settled the slavery question forever.

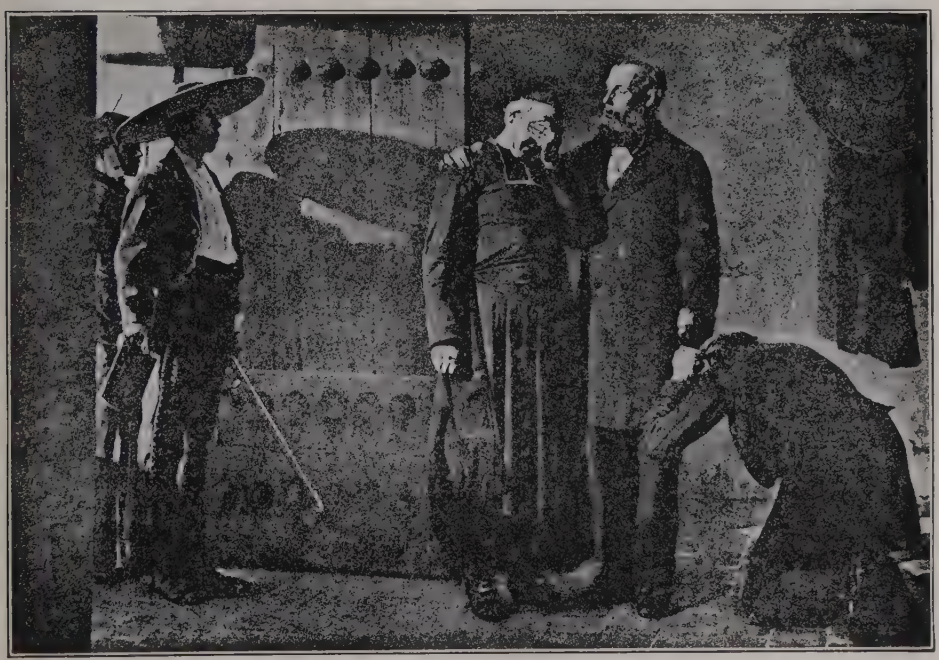
The Mexican War did not last very long. The American troops were well armed and disciplined, and fought steadily. The Mexicans were brave, too, but the long course of revolutions had spoiled both officers and men, and they could not hold their own.

Santa Anna, through these years, had very varied experiences; at one time general in the field, then head of the Government, then in retirement at Havana, then back again to help his country when in dire straits. But his eloquence and enthusiasm, his power of raising money and troops, were all in vain. Vera Cruz was taken, beautiful Puebla, with its many colored tiles glittering in the sun, fell without a blow; even Mexico, the capital, was occupied, after the hill of Chapultepec, so connected with old Mexican history, had been taken after a terrific struggle.

Santa Anna was there in the most exposed places; the brave boys of the military college on Chapultepec were there, receiving their first lesson in actual warfare. It was indeed a terrible day, with the horrid noise of war and the booming of cannon mingled with the frantic ringing of church bells in the city, encouraging the Mexicans to think that the victory was theirs. The bells were silenced when the shouts of the Americans cheered the tearing down of the old colors and the running up of the new on the stronghold, the ancient hill of Chapultepec. This was practically the end of the Texan War.

England and Spain soon withdrew their remonstrances, but Napoleon III, wishing for military glory, managed to set up a European prince, Maximilian of Austria brother of the Emperor Francis Joseph, as Emperor of Mexico, to be supported by the arms of France. His short reign of three years is indeed a tragic story. With his young and charming wife, Maximilian set up a gay court in the beautiful palace, restored and furnished in grand style, on the famous hill of Chapultepec.

The National Museum in the city close by holds the heavy silver plate, the great glass coach, and many other



MAXIMILIAN BEFORE HIS EXECUTION

After peace had come to the long-distracted country, there was a short time of quiet, when reforms were beginning to take effect, and then troubles and quarrels broke out again. These were bad enough for three European powers to make them an excuse for interference.

gorgeous reminders of the brilliant days that passed like a dream, with dinners, dances, and fêtes under the fine trees and among the wealth of sweet roses. The native President Juarez withdrew on Maximilian's entry to the north of Mexico, and bided his time.

Suddenly there came a crash. There had been civil war in the United States while Napoleon III made his schemes, and the Americans were fully occupied for a time. As soon as it was over, they hastened to remind France that the countries of Europe had no right to interfere with the nations of the American continent, and that they could not recognize a monarchy in Mexico. Napoleon was afraid to venture on a war with the United States, so he was compelled to withdraw the help in money and soldiers he had promised to Maximilian, to keep him on the throne which he had persuaded him to accept.

AN EMPRESS WHO LOST HER REASON AND AN INVENTOR WHO LOST HIS THRONE

The poor Empress Carlotta rushed off to Europe to try what personal pleading would do with Napoleon and with the Pope, but she failed to move either. The strain and sorrow of it sent her out of her mind, and she never recovered. Maximilian refused to give up the throne or to leave the country. He was taken prisoner and shot.

As the French left the country, and the empire they had created drew to its tragic end, one of the greatest of Mexican statesmen was making his way to the front. This was General Porfirio Diaz, who took possession of the capital for the Liberals in 1867. Less than a month later the patient, long-enduring Juarez entered it in solemn state. Four years after the death of Juarez, Santa Anna died, poor, blind, and neglected. Though possessing great bravery and military skill, he had always been turbulent and difficult, and often did his country harm instead of good.

Diaz became president first in 1877 and held many long terms of office thereafter, working hard and successfully for the benefit of his country. He, too, lived at Chapultepec, and looked down from the cypress shade on the beautiful wide view, on the lakes and distant volcanoes, whose snowy tops blush rosy red in the sunset, and on the city spreading in every direction. Many were the reforms and schemes for improvements that he carried through. Strenuous were the efforts he made to pay off debts, to extend trade and industries, to improve the water supply, to make the most of the rich soil and fine climate, the vast space and rich minerals with which Mexico is blessed.

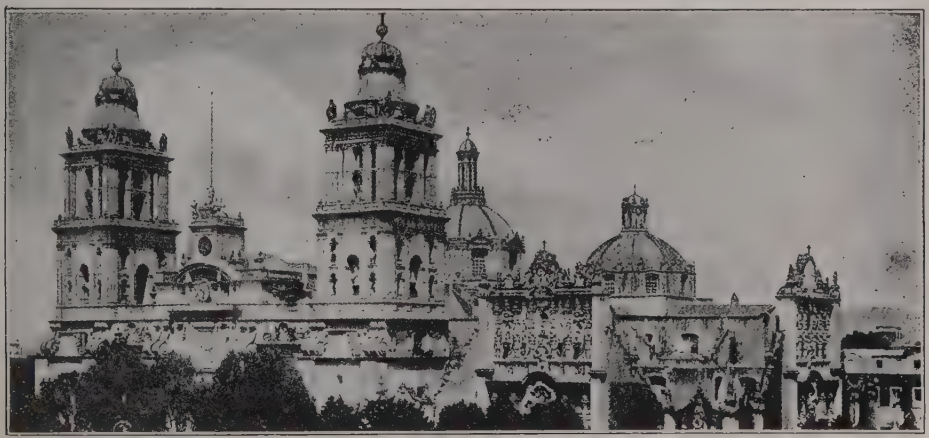
HOW THE TRAIN NOW RUNS ALONG THE ROAD WHERE CORTES LED HIS ARMY

Railways now connect the United States with Mexico, and the iron horse climbs the romantic route of Cortes and his train, from the coast to the plateau, by means of most difficult engineering. A great line is also built across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, connecting the Atlantic and Pacific and lines also cross the other isthmuses of Central America. Spanish rule lasted in Central America for about three centuries, and was thrown off about one hundred years ago. Several independent republics have since been formed: Guatemala and Nicaragua, Honduras, Costa Rica, Salvador, and Panama. The youngest of these republics, is Panama which is about the size of Ireland. The productions of these countries are very like those of Mexico; the governments are not yet so settled. Both earthquakes and revolutions are very common occurrences in Central America.

There is already a railway across the narrowest isthmus—Panama—but the need was so great for ships to pass direct from one ocean to the other that for many years the United States has been engaged in excavating a canal to unite the two oceans. The great canal is now finally completed.

NOTABLE EXAMPLES OF MEXICAN BUILDINGS

This building on a rocky hill surrounded by cypress trees is the palace of Chapultepec, and was formerly the home of Mexico's rulers. It stands on the site of Montezuma's palace and is now used as government offices.



The splendid cathedral in Mexico City was begun in 1573 and was completed 84 years later. Its walls alone cost $2,000,000, and inside there are twenty separate chapels.

The National Palace in the City of Mexico, which has sheltered nearly all of Mexico's rulers. Here lived Cortes, the original conqueror of Mexico, and the ill-fated Maximilian. Over the main entrance is hung the Liberty Bell of Mexico.

The population of Mexico is estimated at about 14 million people. Of these only about two million are white people of Spanish blood. Of the remainder about half are full-blooded Indians, and the other half are *mestizos* or persons of mixed white and Indian blood. The poor Indians and *mestizos* are called peons, and only about 10 per cent of them can read and write.

The Mexican Constitution was copied from that of the United States in 1857, but has never been seriously followed. A genuine republic requires for success a body of citizens that at least can read and write. Mexico has failed as a republic largely because of this lack of popular education.

On the coast the climate is almost unendurably hot, but as you go towards the interior the land rises, and in such cities as Guadalajara, San Luis Potosi and Puebla, there is a climate of perpetual spring; while on some of the mountains of the interior snow stands the whole year. Tropical fruits are found in abundance, but hardy northern vegetation, like apples and potatoes, do not flourish.

MEXICAN RACES AND CUSTOMS

As the language of Mexico is Spanish, so the habits and manners of the people are those of Old Spain. In some of the small pueblos, or towns, you will come across scenes and customs that seem taken from Cervantes' famous novel, *Don Quixote*, written three hundred years ago. The people in general have the characteristics of those who live in gardens, being careless and gay, but self-centered and improvident. Moreover, they have suffered from outside influences and from the demoralizing atmosphere created by centuries of oppression.

The Mexican belongs to one of three great classes. Either he is an Indian, belonging to one of the many tribes that inhabited Mexico when Cortes, overthrew the power of the Montezumas, or he is half-breed, *mestizo*—that is to say, an Indian with a strain of white, commonly Spanish, blood in his veins; or he is a "white man." The old "white" Mexican families whose escutcheon is free from Indian blood are few indeed, so that the European inhabitants, at best only about one-sixth of the total population, are composed of foreign immigrants, adventurers and business men, who move across the picturesque stage of Mexican life and add to its brilliancy. Their civilization is thoroughly Spanish, as are their customs of courtship, marriage, etc.

The Mexican Indian must not be confounded with the American Indian as we know him in the pages of Fenimore Cooper. The Iroquois and Arapahoes were warriors and hunters whose fate it has been to disappear as factors in the life of the United States. The Mexican Indian, on the other hand, being essentially a peaceful tiller of the soil, has continued his vocation in spite of oppression, down to the present day. He is the backbone of the nation, representing more than 40 per cent of the population, and, when educated, will be the preponderant factor in Mexican life.

Dress varies with him according to the climes—here tropical, there temperate or cold—but always brilliant with gaudy colors and flashing with silver ornament. The essentials, with variations and additions, are the *zarape*, a multi-colored blanket that serves many purposes, and the *rebozo*, a broad scarf or shawl of blue, yellow or violet, which is worn over the head and shoulders, dropping in graceful

INTERIOR COURT OF A MEXICAN HOME

This shows the home of a cultivated Mexican of the better class.

A LENTEN PENANCE

Lent is the great season for doing penance, and native women often ascend the Sacre Monte, Amecamica, on their knees, wearing crowns of thorns.

folds and, as often as not, being caught up over the arm. The Indian women throughout the country go barefooted, many of the men, however, indulging in twist and hemp sandals.

In matters of this life, the descendants of the Aztecs and Mayas and kindred tribes are frankly materialist; in matters beyond the pale of their understanding, they are both superstitious and idolatrous. Their religion is nominally that of the Roman Catholic Church, but it is, to a very large extent, the continuation of Aztec and Maya lore. Religious processions have been abolished by the Government, but they still exist in the country, in small Indian villages, built of bamboo huts thatched with palm-leaves. And they are quaint, if noisy. A band, of drum and fife, heads the procession, and is followed by the pious who carry weird, cabalistic figures of colored paper held aloft on long poles. What their meaning is nobody knows and nobody cares. They are taken as a vital accompaniment to a religion that is mumbled to them in Latin; they form an integral part of that which they apostrophize as *costumbre* (habit), against which let no man raise his hand. If they only knew it, these weird figures date from the days of their ancestors before the Conquest. It is the same with their votive offerings of flowers—sacred to that strange man-god who lives as Quetzalcoatl—which are to be found on every roadside shrine (erected to a Virgin of Sorrow or Tears, most likely on the spot where before stood a pagan altar), in village churches and city cathedrals.

Holidays and Feasts of Color

Their offerings prove their love of flowers, and so do their flower-holidays, those gorgeous feasts of color in April on Viga Canal near Mexico City, when

AN AMATEUR BULL FIGHT

THE PUBLIC LETTER-WRITER

The evangelista, or public letter-writer, is to be met in all market-places throughout the country, and his art is highly appreciated by the illiterate lover, anxious to give poetical expression to his or her feelings.

HOLY WATER CARRIERS

Holy water carriers of Agua Prieta fill their vessels at the fountain blessed by the Church prior to the celebrations of Easter Day. A ban has recently been placed by the Government on Church processions, without, however affecting the religious fervor of the Mexicans.

the Aztec *chinampas*, or floating gardens, are a mass of bloom and Quetzalcoatl is frankly worshiped as the God of Nature.

The Flight to Egypt is celebrated every year with great ceremony during the *novena*, or nine days, preceding Christmas, and called *las posadas*, or inn, in commemoration of the inn at Bethlehem. A certain house is chosen by a family or group of friends as the scene for the festivity. This consists of a torchlight procession through the house, accompanied by the singing of a litany, to a room where admission is asked for Joseph and Mary. On obtaining an affirmative answer the demonstrators open the door, and deposit therein the wax figures of Joseph and the Virgin. A return is then made to the diningroom, where carousing is indulged in for the remainder of the night. The same performance is repeated eight consecutive nights. On the ninth, however, the figure of Our Saviour as a child is added to the group, and on the following day the *pinata*, a hanging, tinseled jar with streamers, which takes the place of our Christmas tree, is broken and the presents which it contains are scrambled for by the children.

In their relation to each other, the sexes are strangely matter of fact in the lower, or Indian and *mestizo*, class. In the middle and upper classes, the romance of flashing black eyes, seen in a balcony or behind the *reja*, is identical with the customs of Old Spain, even to the röle played by the fan, the discreet go-between and the patient "bear" twirling his moustache at the street corner, and making weird signs with a cigarette that are only comprehensible to one pair of eyes.

LIFE'S ROMANCE FOR THE INDIAN MAIDEN

Among the Indians, on the other hand, the romance of life is the outburst of a passion. At fourteen the average girl is already married or mated, for marriage itself is not an essential. Those who can afford it, marry; those who cannot, tie their own hymeneal knot. It is true that since the Government has made it a law that only marriage in the registry office is legal, and that Church marriage by itself is illegal, the celebration is within reach of all. But the Indians in their villages know nothing of laws, and believe the *cura* who tells them that only the vows taken in Church are binding. The result is that, knowing nothing about the one, and not being able to afford the other, the ceremony is apt to be dispensed with. This laxity is partly explained, moreover, by that obtaining in the preconquest days, when the act of cohabitation was in itself binding.

Apart from this laxity, however, the union is in every way a moral one, inasmuch as it is not taken by the man as an excuse to escape any responsibility with which he may have shouldered himself. It might, as a matter of fact, be more to the point to speak of the woman in these terms, for hers are the responsibilities and the work. She labors in the fields and labors at home, spins the fiber of the agave and grinds the corn for the *tortillas* or flat cakes that are the staple nourishment of the population and are always homemade. She does the washing on the bank of the river, looks after the bairns, and goes to market, both to buy and sell. She squats in her booth —four poles and two mattings, one for her wares and one for shelter from the sun—and sings her wares; the while the man, an inveterate smoker of cigarettes, lounges about. The red flag hung out at a shop window tells him where fresh *pulque* is to be had, and off he goes, perhaps to be joined later by his wife, who smokes and

drinks as well as he. Or, instead, she may go to consult the *curandera*, the witch, who plays as important a part in her life as the curate.

There is no antagonism between sorcery and Church to the native mind; one is rather complementary to the other. The sign of the cross will, to all intents and purposes, keep away the Evil Eye; so will the *curandera's* potion. Therefore, argues the Indian woman, with both weapons she is doubly armed. Perhaps she is jealous of her husband, and surely the *curandera's* recipe will render prayers more efficacious. Besides, the witch is more human than mumbled Latin, and, an adept in the lore of her race, she touches superstitious chords that have slumbered since Guatemotzin, the last of the Aztec kings, whose memory is wildly feted each year by the Indians, went on his long journey. Consequently her sway is an important one and in her favor be it said that she is learned in the secrets of medicinal plants, as were her forbears, and that, if lives have been lost through her folly, tragedies wrought through her machinations, and thousands fooled by following her ridiculous instructions, many more have had their ailments cured by her simple methods.

Where superstition—and it is natural in Mexico as compared with other countries—thrives, the magic arts thrive also, and Mexico is no exception. The birth of a child—otherwise an unimportant event in the life of an unspoiled people—is the occasion for the astrologer, amateur or otherwise, for the seller of charms that will make the boy a happy man in his time and the girl an uncomplaining mother. The next step is to take the offspring to the church to be baptized. Even if the father and mother are not married, the child must be baptized, cost what it may, and *peones* (native laborers)

A TEHUANTEPEC WOMAN

The national costume consists of a brilliant-colored skirt and a huipili, or sleeveless bodice, to which is attached a starched lace ruffle, which either stands erect as in the picture or is dropped on the shoulders.

are frequently to be met on the highway with a babe in their arms, on their way to the nearest church. This is the father's first duty, and he never shirks it. As for the mother, she is, as are her kind, passionately fond of her child, especially if it be a boy, and, unless she has a daughter old enough to toddle around with the child on her back, the baby will never leave her, being slung across her back and held in place by the *rebozo* when she works or walks. As soon as the child is able to talk, it is taught a prayer, and gradually the mother imparts to it her stock of traditions and legends, miracles and religion, which go to make up the child's knowledge of the unseen wonders of the world. With such an

education the preservation of old Aztec traditions and lore is assured for generations to come.

Death but a Momentary Shadow

The shadow of death casts but a passing gloom over the Mexican, and the bones of the dead, except in cases where special payment has been made to the Church, are not allowed to lie longer than a couple of years in the ground. Among the poorer classes the coffin is merely a convenient receptacle for transporting the body to the Campo Santo, and is consequently hired from the undertaker for the occasion. The chanting of a mass is, however, indispensable, and votive offerings of flowers, instead of candles, to the particular saint of the locality are an essential feature of the mourning ceremonies, which include the wearing of black or purple, the servants among the richer classes donning similar garbs of somber hue. In lonely villages, untroubled since the days of the Conquest, Aztec rites, it would appear, are indulged in by the Indians, even to the sacrificing of dogs, chickens, etc. The latter are, together with turkeys, frequently sacrificed in some weird and perhaps disgusting fashion by the witch, the *curandera*, to counteract the ever-dreaded influence of the Evil Eye—the Great Bad One—who is specially active at the time of childbirth and when illness is in the house.

Mystic Dances of the Mexican

The Mexican's chief amusements are music, singing and dancing, the almost national dance being the *jarabe*. There are also many mystic dances, a mixture of Church and Aztec lore, reminiscent of the early days of the Spanish occupation. These are danced, with the accompaniment of drum, fife, and masks, at stated times of the year, and vary according to locality. In the far-away south the *danza de la conquista*, showing Aztecs overawed by the arrival of the white man, is among the most characteristic. The *fiestas* of the Church, as are the patronymic or saints' days of relatives and friends, are also feted gleefully by the population—dancing, gambling, cock-fighting and the bull-fight being the leading amusements. As regards cock-fighting, the bull-fight, and *baraja* (cards), all of Spanish origin, they have become essentially national. After the *cura* (village priest) and the *curandera*, the agent exercising the greatest influence on the life of the Mexican is *pulque*. This national drink is made from the agave, a plant resembling a huge aloe, which, cut at the right time, gives forth a honey-like fluid. Treated with *madre de pulque* and allowed to ferment, it produces a strong-smelling liquor, to drink which the Mexican will spend his last centavos. Too generous libations—and they are frequent—produce a dull kind of intoxication. The *pulqueria*, where it is sold, is an interesting establishment, and it is here that many a fleeting glance of Mexican life can be obtained by the traveler in Mexico.

PARIS, THE BEAUTIFUL CAPITAL OF FRANCE

PARIS is a city of many aspects and interests. It is rich in historic scenes and full of splendid buildings and monuments. It is the great ancient and famous city whose university was a home of learning in the Middle Ages; a city that loves liberty as well as learning, and has done not only noble deeds but ignoble ones in the name of liberty, blindly slaying evil people and good and wise people, like Madame Roland, who said as she went to the scaffold, "O Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!" and Lavoisier, who discovered the oxygen of the air, and whose head the Parisians cut off at the Revolution, saying, "The Republic has no need of chemists;" the city where bad kings and their ministers once wasted their lives while the people starved. One of those men, when told that the people had no bread, said, "Then let them eat grass!" And when at last they cut off his head, they stuffed that mouth with grass. Such were the evils which seemed destined to end in Paris at the dawn of the Revolution, four generations ago, when the poet of childhood and liberty, William Wordsworth, hailed the promise of the future, and said—

"Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
And to be young was very heaven."

He did not know Napoleon was coming.

HOME OF FAMOUS SCIENTISTS

Paris is also the great city of today, where the chemist Louis Pasteur, of whom kingdoms and republics have need, found that microbes are the cause of most illnesses, and where his followers work for human life; the city where a Polish lady, Madame Curie, lately found radium—not a bad second to Lavoisier's oxygen, and where men may listen to the living words of the

LAVOISIER AND HIS WIFE (FROM A PAINTING BY DAVID)

Lavoisier was the founder of modern chemistry, and in his laboratory in Paris was laid the foundation for this wonderful science. Here, too, his life was sacrificed to satisfy the frenzy of the French Revolution, and he was sent to the guillotine in 1794.

wisest and deepest thinker of our time, Henri Bergson, who says that the future of life can always be greater and nobler than its past. That is the Paris, herself noble in the past, and destined to a noble future, that we shall describe—not the Paris of the newspapers, where people are extravagant and vain, and where mad and bad men blow up motor cars and rob banks. Folly and wickedness are never far to seek, and are not worth seeking anyway; but the real Paris—the Paris of Paré, the great surgeon of long ago, who said, "I dressed my patient, God healed him;" and of Pascal, who taught that God is greater than our ideas of Him, and of Pasteur and Bergson—that is only to be found on the banks of the Seine.

THE GREAT THINGS TO SEE IN PARIS

Suppose we begin our tour of Paris in the Tuileries Gardens, where once a king's palace stood; but now the motto of France is "Liberty, Equality, Brotherhood," and the only divine right of kings, we begin to see, is the divine right to be kingly men—as was said by Carlyle, who wrote the greatest history of the French Revolution. Plainly, there are some fine lessons to be learned here by all who would know the proper purpose of governments.

Next we should see the most beautiful and famous statue, probably the most beautiful thing not itself alive, in the whole world. This is the Venus of Milo, carved out of marble by an unknown genius of Greece when France and England were the homes of savages only, then buried by the earth for ages, and dug up about ninety years ago, rather broken and worn—men always will argue as to what her arms were like—and now set up in the Louvre to show to all the world how noble and tender and nat-

ALONG THE GRAND BOULEVARDS

It is on these fashionable thoroughfares that the true café life of Paris may be seen at its best. There are numerous restaurants and other places of refreshment in this section, each with its own particular clientèle.

ural and dignified and beautiful the face and form of a woman may be.

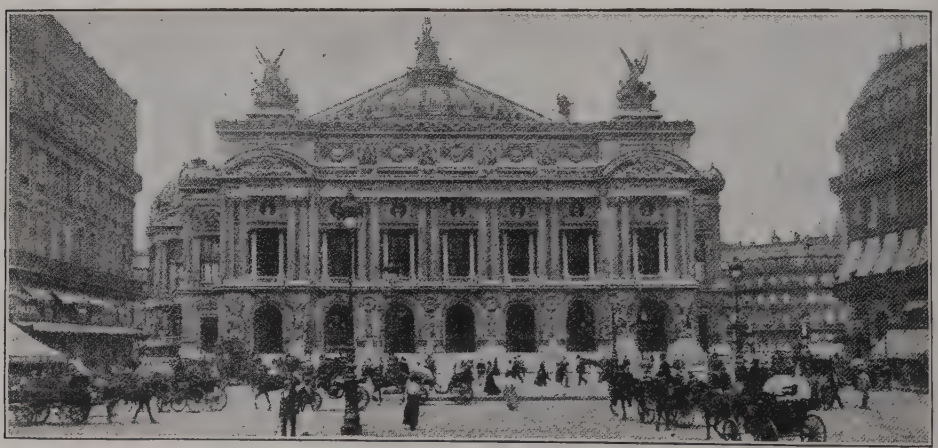
The great cathedral of Notre Dame, or Our Lady, named after a young village girl in far-off Palestine, is a great and splendid building, which she would have been very much astonished to see, and it has had a strange history, for soldiers have camped in it, people have gone to see dancing in it, the Revolutionists nearly succeeded in burning it; but some day, perhaps, it will be used, as it is named, in honor of motherhood, for

> A mother is a mother still
> The holiest thing alive

—and while all the world over people are beginning now again to honor and care for motherhood and babyhood, in no great city in the world are they so well cared for as in Paris today—for it was there that all our new interest in mothers and babies was started.

The coming of spring in the Bois de Boulogne, a beautiful wood near Paris, is a beautiful sight. Visitors go there again and again during a visit, because the things made by men in Paris itself drive them for refreshment to the pines and water and wild ducks and the grass and the day's eyes—usually spelled daisies for short—which grow in the grass of that wood. In the evening we go to hear a beautiful opera. It is all about Paris and the spring of a young girl's life; and the composer, who wrote the words as well as the music, shows us how even such a fine city as Paris is no more fit for a girl to pass the spring of her life in than for wild ducks to do so. Cities and their streets are all very well, but not for young people's homes.

This opera is called "Louise," after the girl whom the story is about, and at the end of it the spirit of the wrong Paris calls her; and her father, who loves her and lives for her, but has forgotten what it is to be young, drives her from home, and then breaks his heart for the loss of her. This is an old story of fathers and mothers and what happens when children grow up; and the lesson of it is that if parents and children are also friends, who understand and trust each other, and if cities are so made that they are not allowed to hurt young people, then fewer hearts will break behind their walls. This opera of "Louise" is perhaps the best that has been



PARIS OPERA HOUSE

Paris abounds in places of amusement of all kinds and the leading theaters receive a large sum of money every year towards their support. It cost over five million dollars to build the lovely opera house which we see here. Standing in the heart of Paris, it is one of the great glories of the capital.

written since Richard Wagner died, and can often be heard in America now. The Frenchman, M. Charpentier, who wrote it, has founded a home for young working girls in Paris with the money his fine work has brought him. So his music touches our hearts because it came from his.

The Parisians should take the hint from M. Charpentier, and do something useful with the great Palace of Versailles, near Paris. It is a huge place, with lovely grounds around it. The rooms contain nothing but miles of ugly pictures of battles on the walls, a few attendants, and a number of bored visitors, tramping on and wondering when they will come to something different—which they never do. In the grounds the children of the Republic play, and that is good. The Palace of Versailles would make a magnificent home for ailing and delicate children, as it could do at little expense, and even without injuring the acres of pictures on the walls. This would make Versailles into the finest and most useful building in the world; and instead of being a record and memorial of the dead past, and of idle and worthless kings and queens and courtiers, Versailles would become a palace indeed, a Palace of Children who are the kings and queens of the coming world. Do you remember the hymn of the new Chinese Republic?

> The wind is so sweet,
> The dew is so bright,
> The flowers are so fragrant,
> And men are becoming all kings.

Then come the pictures and statues of some of the newest artists. There they are, under the sky of Paris, only a few minutes' walk from the Venus of Milo and all the lovely old pictures in the Louvre.

A BRAVE BOY OF THE WILDERNESS AND THE BRAVE GIRL OF THE BATTLEFIELD

There is a wonderful picture gallery, once a palace, called the Luxembourg. Perhaps it is even more famous for its statues, and it has some beautiful statues of children. Here is one of John the Baptist, when he was just a simple little boy, but had already made up his mind to tell people that life was a nobler thing than they knew, and that a great Teacher was coming to tell them so.

And here are two of a brave girl, whose name was really the same as his, and whom the French call Jeanne d'Arc, and we Joan of Arc. She was born in 1412, over five hundred years ago, and in one of these statues we see her thinking over what she felt to be her duty of saving her beloved country. She was only seventeen when she began to drive out the English, who were invading France. But the French were divided among themselves, and the treacherous party captured and sold her to the English, who pretended to try her, and then murdered her as a witch, when she was only nineteen. There is another statue from the Luxembourg, which shows her at the stake. You will see statues and pictures of her all over Paris, in the churches and outside them.

THE TOMB OF THE GREATEST FRENCHMAN WHO EVER LIVED

The Pantheon was first meant to be a church, and many celebrated Frenchmen are buried there, among them Pasteur, the greatest Frenchman of all time, who believed that to work is to pray, for his favorite motto was *Il faut travailler*, "We must work." He explained more puzzles and mysteries than any man before him and made them plain. He said the plainest things are wonderful, and often said that "everything is a miracle." His body lies in a little chapel under a large, plain building in a dull side street.

Before Pasteur lived, nearly all diseases were mysterious, and men

stared at the moon and the stars for the explanation of them; but Pasteur made the causes of most diseases plain, and showed how to cure some and prevent most, if we will. For he found how microbes make one ill, and how we must protect ourselves against them. All doctors and nurses in the world today are the pupils of Louis Pasteur.

THE MAN WHO MADE THE CAUSE OF MOST DISEASES PLAIN

His is a living tomb, as it should be. This greatest fighter for man, who fought against death and folly and deformity and pain, has his mortal part in a tomb around which his generals live and work for life. For Pasteur's body lies in the Pasteur Institute, the center of the world for the understanding and cure of disease. In front of the institute is a statue of a young shepherd struggling with a mad wolf. He was the first person saved by Pasteur's discovery of a cure for the bites of mad dogs. Here the cleverest and wisest men have worked and do work for their commander, who, being dead, yet healeth. Here Professor Metchnikoff made the discoveries showing how alcohol intoxicates and weakens the white cells in the blood which he had already proved to be the defensive garrison of the living house.

Here Professor Roux did the work that helped to give the wonderful medicine which now saves the lives of many children all the world over every day, the "antitoxin" which prevents the toxin, or poison, made by the diphtheria microbes from doing any harm. Among the greatest of his generals, was Lord Lister, who applied Pasteur's discoveries to the care of motherhood and to surgical operations, has been said to save more lives in every year than Napoleon took in all his wars. And Pasteur saved animals from diseases in just the same way, by finding the microbes that killed them. He saved the silkworms of France, and thus her silk industry; he saved her flocks and herds; and it is reckoned that thus he saved France enough money to pay all the millions she had to pay to Germany at the end of the terrible war of many years ago.

A magnificent church has been built by the French as a tomb for Napoleon, who took from France so many of her tall and strong young men to die on foreign soil that the French are a short people today, and it has been said that not even Pasteur could restore to the French people the cubit of stature which Napoleon lopped off them. Never did such a conqueror go forth under a nation's flag, and never did a nation pay a more terrible price. There he lies under that vast dome—and all his famous generals lie round him. Professor Richet of Paris has reckoned that Napoleon's campaigns must have cost in all not less than eight millions of human lives.

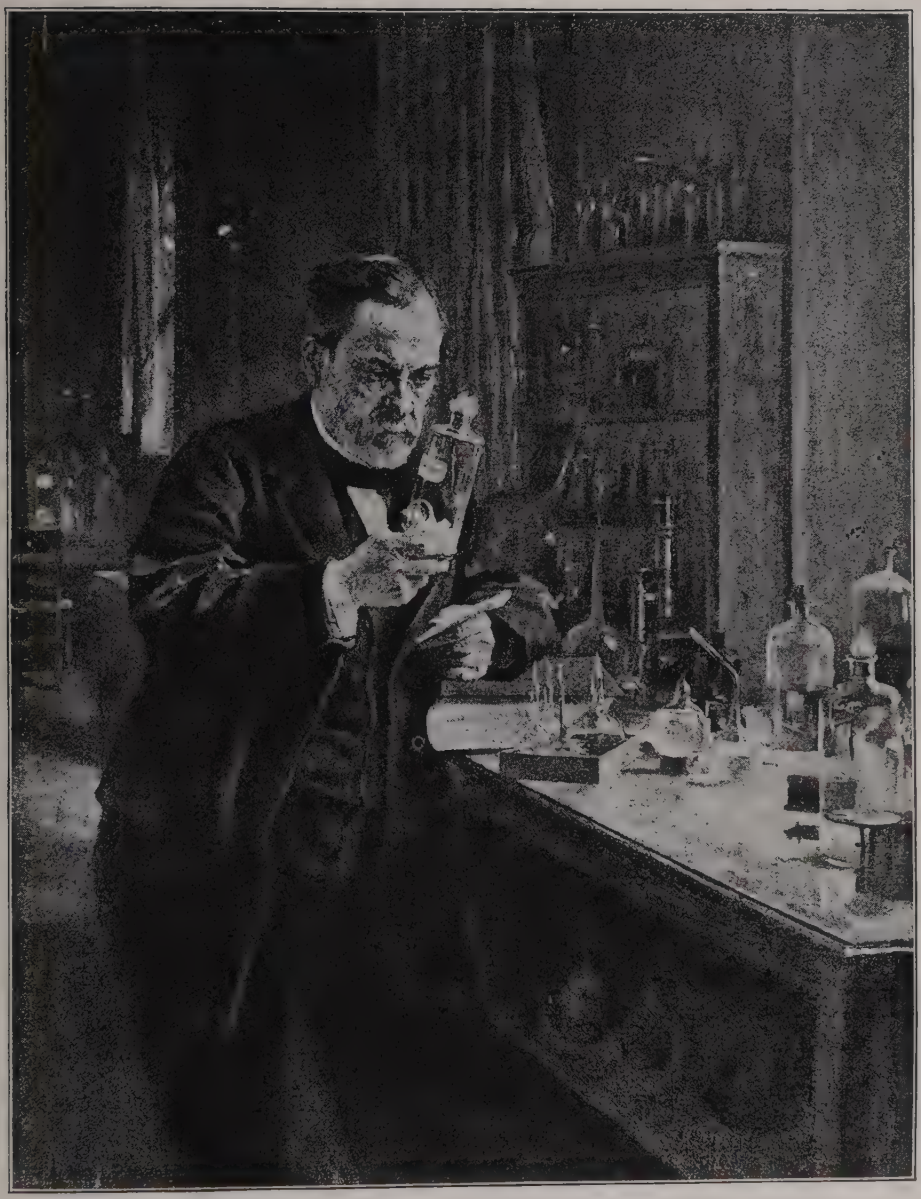
In the famous cemetery, called Perè la Chaise there is the tomb of the musician Chopin, whose lovely music makes many people happy, and gives them peace and rest, and new strength for life, every day.

In the Bois de Boulogne, life looks forward instead of backward, and there flowers may be gathered and enjoyed.

The big dome of one of the most famous observatories in the world may be seen in a trip down the river where the great astronomer of Paris, Laplace, taught men how the sun and the earth and the planets were born out of a fire-mist, or nebula.

PARIS FROM MONTMARTRE

From the steps of the Basilica of the Sacré Cœur, from the summit of Montmartre, that world-famed hill



LOUIS PASTEUR IN HIS LABORATORY IN PARIS

underneath which beats the sacred heart of the Paris of Parisians, you may study the panorama of the city's color.

Paris lies at your feet, not unlike a vast cemetery, an almost silent wilderness of stones; almost silent, for at this height the noise of the streets is nearly deadened and the movement of their traffic is absorbed into their shadows. But if you listen, faint sounds will strike the ear, a rising dust of human voices, something that resembles the whispering of a June breeze as it rustles over ripening wheat fields; a dream-like music, not sad, because it is made up in large measure of the calling of children one to another, but yet pathetic, for it is disembodied like a memory that comes from far away.

The sobbing of a calm sea's wavelets on fine sand, the baaing of distant flocks of sheep, are more or less vaguely suggested by the sound. It is not unlike the mysterious "summer hum," unearthly, yet of the earth, which still puzzles naturalists, and might be first cousin to the music of the spheres.

Rising from the stones beneath you, this attenuated symphony of noises gives them vibratory animation, much as the Mass music played on the organ within an ancient church, and heard from without, seems to be the voice of the building, the soul of its walls and towers and painted windows awakened into throbbing expression.

Thus the comparison with the cemetery is not altogether just, though, save for these haunting street echoes, the city down below has all the silence of the grave. The Invalides, the Pantheon and the Opera, with their green or gilded domes; Notre Dame, St. Sulpice, St. Vincent de Paul and a dozen other churches with their towers and spires, rise up, prouder mausoleums, from amidst the small fry of this ocean of tombstones.

After all, what are these human habitations, what is a city, but an agglomeration of graves, a cemetery in which each succeeding generation buries the unachieved effort and dead ideals of its predecessor? Or, if you will, a national fane—like royal St. Denis, whose towers are discernible to the right of where you stand—in which long dynasties of high thought and brilliant actions and gorgeous dreams, tricked out in the cloth of gold of victory, or swathed in the shroud of disaster, lie magnificently sepulchered?

A CITY OF INFINITY OF COLOR

Paris is a city of stone and her predominating colors are white with all its gradations of gray and drab, added to green and blue, but particularly blue. Her stone is a living stone with a human heart-throb, and, varying in date from a thousand years ago to yesterday, wears on its rugged surface an infinity of stone tints. Her stretches of blue-tiled roofs, with their red chimneys, form a high transparent canopy of rose-lilac over this stoniness which, gray in the mass, but burning white when the sun flashes on it, distinguishes Paris from New York with its red brick and brown stone and London with its yellow brick and stucco.

From the heights of Montmartre it is not possible to see the Seine. The inhabitants of this essentially Parisian quarter of Paris are shut off from the gleaming vision by an intervening barrier of many streets of tall squalid tenements, and few are likely to climb the tower of Notre Dame, whence the broad blue sweep of the queenly river best shows itself, dividing the city into apparently two equal parts from east to west, flowing onward in the sense of the cathedral's own peerless lines. Yet the Seine is to Paris as the tail to the peacock,

the supreme orchestral outburst of her color scheme. The brilliant white of the stone embankments as the blue and silver stream swirls through the city; the green of the trees that border them will be repeated all along the Seine's swift course to the sea in white chalk cliffs and siliceous banks, broad green pastures and hanging woods.

The Seine is distinguished from all the rivers of France by this dazzling body robe of blue, matching the sky, trimmed with silver and fringed with green.

Instinctively the blue and white which are the dominant colors of Paris have been adopted into the city's armorial blazon.

The Marne, on the other hand, which is only a Paris river by adoption—for it flows into the Seine at Charenton, just outside the eastern confines of the city—is always of a deep green, clear as crystal, owing to its bed being of a fine white clay.

But it is at night that the anecdotic quality of the color of Paris most reveals itself. The streets are aflame with myriads of multicolored lights, each of which has its peculiar Parisian suggestion to convey. At the same time the general color effect is extremely rich and variegated. Paris at night is as bejeweled as an Oriental princess; but here, again, London surely has the advantage of her, in variety and beauty of color. After the complete nightfall, London lights have none of the harmonious arrangement and sapphire blue setting of those of Paris, and their suggestion is incomparably more mean; but Paris is rarely visited by those fantastic mist forms, eerie fog giants, which people the London parks after sunset, and Paris has little twilight.

A TINGUIAN WEDDING

The girl takes a handful of rice from the dish and drops it between the cracks in the bamboo floor as an offering to the spirits. The boy throws a ball of rice in the air, the way in which it falls indicating whether the marriage will be prosperous. The couple then drink water from the cocoanut-shell and the ceremony is complete.

PHILIPPINE NATIVES AND CUSTOMS

THE Philippine Islands contain perhaps the most confusing admixture of races in the world. The natives, of whom there are more than eighty distinct tribes, are of the Malayan or brown race, the yellow, black and white races, and inhabit an archipelago numbering about three thousand islands.

The aborigines are of negro stock and are still found practicing a primitive form of existence in the interior of the larger islands. They are of short stature and resemble in appearance the typical negro.

The first invaders to disturb the security of the aborigines were Indonesians, who drove the Negritos into the mountains and afterwards intermingled with them. The most interesting tribes of this stock are the Igorots, the Tinguians, the Bagobos and the Mandayas, though there are others of almost equal importance.

To the Indonesians, who came principally from the mainland of Asia on its southeastern extremity, and from Borneo and Sumatra, succeeded the Malays, among whom were certain "Moros" or Mohammedan Malays, now chiefly to be seen in Palawan and Mindanao. In the sixteenth century Spaniards landed on the islands, and large numbers of Chinese crossed over to add to the population a further strain—to a population which was already showing signs that the diversity of races had not precluded an amicable settlement of territory, or even intermarriage between its motley constituents. Thus there may now be found Negrito-Indonesians,

BAGOBO MUSICIANS

The striking costume of the Bagobos is well seen in this illustration. The jackets are embroidered over the shoulders and arms and at the neck and waist, and often have complicated designs in shell disks or beads.

IFUGAO WOMEN

Ifugaoes are divided into a large number of hereditary clans, each of which occupies a definite clan district and has a definite name. They bear a strong resemblance to the Japanese.

A MANOBO OF MINDANAO

The Manobos, whose usual dress consists of short trousers and a shirt, are a war-like people and very expert archers. They live in clans under a headman, and occupy a large part of the island of Mindanao.

A MANGYAN WOMAN

The Mangyans occupy nearly the whole of the interior of the island of Mindoro, and are probably crossed with negro blood. Note the quid of tobacco carried between the lips in order to blacken the teeth.

Malayo-Indonesians, Malayo-Europeans and Malayo-Chinese.

THE NEGRITOS

The first race which possessed the archipelago were the Negritos, who are also known as Aeta. They form one branch of the Eastern as opposed to the African division of the pygmy race.

The men average not over four feet six inches in height and have frizzy hair, a short, flat nose, roundish eyes, an almost black skin and abnormally long arms. Their physique, however, is fine, their chests are broad, their limbs well proportioned and their bodies, as a whole, muscular. By way of ornament they sharpen their teeth and raise great scars on their bodies. The men wear, as a rule, only a breechcloth and the women rarely more than a short skirt to the knees. The latter also adorn themselves with seed necklaces and sometimes beads, curious combs, feathers, flowers in the pierced ears and other similar objects. For special occasions in Palawan the bark garments are often decorated with colored designs, while flowers, brightly-colored leaves and seed necklaces adorn the head and neck.

They build only the rudest shelters, which they desert at pleasure. At times they make small clearings in the jungle and plant rice or sweet potatoes, but a death or other cause for fear is quite sufficient to make them give up their fields and move to other parts. For the greater part of the year they live on the fish and game they can capture, and the roots and other products of the forest.

The Negrito is by instinct and habit a hunter. Indeed, his existence could not be maintained without hunting, upon which, therefore, we find all his ingenuity exercised. Women occasionally take part in hunting, especially if dogs are scarce, and they run through the brushwood with loud cries.

MARRIAGE CUSTOMS

Marriages are arranged with regard to the value of the prospective bride. Good looks and good health in a girl are a valuable asset to her parents, which their would-be son-in-law has to purchase. The transaction is usually carried on by the parents, but a girl is supposed to have some freedom of choice. The custom of exchange of brides also exists: the brother and sister in one family marrying the sister and brother in another and thus avoiding a great deal of expense. Occasionally a boy and girl are betrothed in infancy.

The actual ceremony varies from a somewhat elaborate ritual to a marriage of which there is practically no evidence at all; but a feast which is followed by dancing is generally held. In some districts the man and woman sit in the center of a large circle of relatives and feed each other from a common dish. After the onlookers have acclaimed the action the couple perform some act of service together, such as ministering to the wants of their relatives, typifying union in work as a mark of married life.

After the ceremony the bride and bridegroom spend a few days with the former's parents and then return home. Their return is celebrated by a further gift of presents to the bride, with dancing and with a show of festivity if the bridegroom has sufficient means to warrant such a display. His means also control the number of wives a Negrito may possess. There is no other restriction.

MUSIC AND DANCING FAVORITE AMUSEMENTS

An account of the Negritos, however short, would be imperfect without some mention of their love of music and dancing, which is, of course,

a common Negroid characteristic. Their musical instruments are of a primitive nature being a flute made from bamboo, a jew's-harp and violin of bamboo and rude forms of guitars. Gongs, probably obtained from Malays, are found in some places.

Dancing is the principal amusement, and gives an opportunity for the Negritos to display their exuberant spirits. Besides the ordinary steps, they have mimetic dances showing such things as the gathering of crops or the taking of honey from bees, and episodes relating to love and war.

Among the many tribes that belong to this race may be mentioned the Tinguians, the Igorots, the Bagobos, the Subanuns, the Ifugaos, the Kalingas, the Mangyans, the Manobos and the Ilongots.

The natives who have been converted to Christianity, and who form politically and socially the Filipino people, are composed of the following tribes: the Tagalos, the Visayans, the Ilocanos, the Bicols, the Pangasinanes, the Pampangans and the Cagayanes.

THE TINGUIANS

The people known as Tinguians live in the rugged mountains of northwestern Luzon. For the most part the western slopes of the central mountain chain are bare of forests, but both river valleys and mountain sides are carpeted with rank cogon grass.

The rough nature of the country, together with the lack of forest products and animals, has compelled the people to resort to intensive agriculture in order to make provision for the dry season. When a new field is to be prepared, they go to the mountainside, build a stone wall, behind which they cut away and fill in the soil until they have made a step or terrace. At the back of this plot they raise another wall and again fill in until at last their fields rise step above step far up the mountain sides. Irrigation is provided by diverting a mountain stream into the highest terrace and allowing the water to fall from terrace to terrace until it is completely used up. Sometimes large dams are constructed and the water carried a great distance by aqueducts. The terraces are generally built along a mountain stream, so that the most necessary part of cultivation may be easily effected.

The custom of head hunting has compelled the people of a district to gather into compact villages, which, while at peace with near neighbors, are at war with all others. In this way there have been built up compact agricultural settlements, each of which is ruled by an oligarchy of old men who own allegiance to no tribal chief.

Until recent years dire necessity has made of each man a warrior, while the desire for heads has caused the younger men to make frequent forays against hostile settlements.

For the initial attack the warrior makes use of his spear, but when fighting at close quarters he depends entirely upon his shield, headaxe, and fighting-knife. The shield has three prongs at the top, these he attempts to thrust between the legs of his adversary, then one blow of the headaxe places the enemy out of the conflict. The two prongs at the other end are used to slip about the neck; one more blow and the victor seizes his trophy and starts for his home.

Following the return of a successful war-party, a great celebration attended with much singing, dancing and drinking of sugar-cane spirit, is held. Dancing is among the Tinguians, as among other uncivilized people, the chief amusement. The best exponents display a great deal of energy and a keen sense of rhythm. Among

TINGUIANS PREPARING A SACRIFICE

After the medium has called the attention of the spirits to the sacrifice which is about to be offered to them, a short time is allowed to elapse to enable them to partake of the repast. The animals are then singed and prepared for food.

SKULLS DECORATING AN IFUGAO HOUSE

Besides the feast in celebration of victory, the Ifugaos make a great occasion of the loss of a head. The funeral of a beheaded body is attended by a vast number of people, and vengeance ceremonies are held on the succeeding days.

BAGOBO MAN

The Bagobo men wear kerchiefs, the edges of which are embroidered with beads and tassels, on their heads. Their dress is the most picturesque in the islands.

MORO MAN

The Moros are Mohammedan Malays and invaded the Philippine Islands shortly before their discovery by the Spaniards. They are found principally in the Sulu Archipelago.

THE WHIPPING CEREMONY AT A TINGUIAN FUNERAL

The funeral generally lasts three days, and during that time the corpse is carefully guarded against injury from the evil spirits. On the morning of the third day each male guest is whipped, so that all may feel as sorry as the family of the dead man.

their musical instruments is the nose-flute, upon which a plaintive tune is played by blowing gently with one nostril, the other nostril being blocked to increase the power. At the conclusion of the war dance, the captured heads are split up into small fragments and a piece is given to each guest, so that he may take it to his home, and thus be constantly reminded of the prowess of the victor.

Tinguian women

The women of the tribe wear short cotton skirts, which reach from the waist to the knees, and, when not at work, don short-sleeved jackets. Their hair is held in place with strands of beads, while similar ornaments surround their necks, but the most prized decorations are the armbeads. These are placed strand above strand, so that they reach from the wrist to the elbow, and if the wealth of the owner permits, even extend to the shoulder. Those above the wrists are drawn so tightly, that they cause those members to swell, but this is style, so they endure the inconvenience without complaint.

Religion

Any attempt to describe the life of the Tinguian must be preceded by at least an outline of his religion, for to him it is very real, and influences every act of his daily life. He believes in a great host of spirits, with whom he talks through the aid of mediums. During ceremonies the bodies of these mediums are possessed by the spirits of superior beings, and then, no longer as humans but as the spirits themselves, they direct what shall be done to bring health and happiness to the people of the village. Before such a ceremony the medium goes to a grove near the village and there makes an offering at the altar to the *pinaing*. These are peculiarly-shaped stones, which are believed to be the abodes of the spirits who guard the village. The heads of the stones are oiled, bark-bands are tied about their necks, and then the blood of a sacrificed pig mixed with rice is scattered before them.

Before an animal is killed it is placed on the ground, betel-nut and lime is laid on it, and then the medium strokes it with oiled fingers, meanwhile bidding the spirits to give attention to the offering which is about to be made. After the spirits have been allowed sufficient time to partake of the repast, the animals are singed and prepared for food.

During these ceremonies spirit-houses are built, and in and about them offerings are made and dances are held. So strong is the faith of the people in the power and interest of the spirit-world that every event of daily life is attended with some manifestations of this belief. Tiny houses are erected in the fields and gardens; ceremonies are held before the new rice can be placed in the granaries; while offerings are made in the houses at times of crisis and epidemics.

Marriage customs

Marriages are contracted for very young children and a price is then paid for the girl. However, the children do not live together until near the age of puberty. When the time arrives for the final ceremony the groom carries a valuable jar to his parents-in-law, and from that time on he cannot call either of them by name. The girl's parents prepare a dish of rice and a cocoanut-shell of water, and place them on the floor between the couple. The girl takes a handful of rice, squeezes it into a ball and drops it between the cracks in the bamboo floor, as an offering to the spirits. The boy likewise squeezes rice into a ball and tosses it into the air. If it breaks or rolls it is con-

IFUGAOS OF NORTHERN LUZON IN WEDDING DRESS

A feast is the invariable accompaniment of an Ifugao marriage, as it is of all events connected with their life. A large amount of the Ifugao's time is spent in obtaining animals and other requisites for these feasts, which have a religious character.

sidered a sign that the couple may be unfaithful or their children die, but if it remains intact where it has fallen all is favorable. The couple drink of the cold water in the cup and the ceremony proper is complete.

TINGUIAN FUNERALS

A funeral is a great event in a Tinguian village. The dead man is dressed in his best garments and is placed in a sitting position against the wall of the room. Above and about him are blankets and other valuable presents, the ghost souls of which go with the soul of the dead person to his ancestors in *Maglawa*—his future home. The funeral generally lasts three days, and during that time the spouse of the deceased is kept under a white blanket, and both she and the corpse are guarded night and day by the wailers. This is necessary for otherwise evilly-disposed spirits would be sure to injure the body or cause the death of the living.

During the period in which the body remains in the house friends and relatives continue to gather, and by the morning of the third day a considerable number have assembled. At some time during the morning of that day each male guest is beaten—one hundred and fifty strokes each—"in order that all may feel as sorry as the family of the dead man."

Toward nightfall an old woman sits down in front of the body, and covering her face with her hands begins to wail, begging the spirit of the dead man to enter her body. Suddenly she is possessed, and falls back in a faint. For a moment she is left in this condition, then fire and water are brought, the spirit is frightened away and the medium gives the last messages of the deceased to his family.

The body is then buried beneath the house in a grave already occupied by one or more of his ancestors, but for many days the family is under strict taboo, and the grave is constantly guarded to prevent the approach of hostile spirits.

THE IGOROT

The Igorot live also in Northern Luzon, and may be roughly classified as Bontoc Igorot, Lepanto Igorot and Benguet Igorot, but the name Igorot has been loosely used to include all the head hunting peoples of Luzon, and later became almost synonymous with wild.

The Igorot are a hardy and industrious race of fine physique, and are in color a dark bronze. They have straight black hair, which is cut in a fringe over the forehead.

In the center of each village, which usually contains a population of three or four thousand, is the tribunal where the head man and elders meet to settle disputes and order the affairs of the community. Tattooing is very fashionable, the pattern most common being an arrangement of straight and curved lines, but more ambitious designs are sometimes attempted. Both sexes are fond of personal adornment.

IGOROT MARRIAGES

The unmarried girls of each village sleep in a special "dormitory." The youths also sleep apart from their families, and these arrangements for the segregation of the sexes are zealously maintained by public opinion. Before marriage the boy and girl must obtain the consent of their parents, and they make a trial of married life before the actual ceremony takes place, with feasting and dances. Twins are considered unlucky, but if a neighbor can be found to adopt one of the children no ill results are feared.

The Igorot believe in a supreme god and certain inferior deities, who hold communication with them through the ancestral spirits. These spirits

KALINGA OF NORTHERN LUZON IN GALA DRESS

The Kalingas are a group of the tribes known as Igorots, who are all mountain agriculturists and until lately have been head hunters.

A MANGYAN MAN

An adult man, from Mindoro, looking for a bride. Note the feather on his right arm.

are represented by roughly-carved pieces of wood. Near every village is a sacred tree, in which the ancestral spirits are supposed to live, and rice and other food is put outside the house on little benches for them.

THE SUBANOS

The Subanos are a large tribe, inhabiting the western peninsula of Mindanao, except the coast. The name Subano (river-dwellers) indicates this, being given to the people because they were met with in going up the rivers from the coast, in distinction to the Moros and other tribes, who are coast-dwellers.

The men wear their hair long and dress in a tight jacket and trousers.

The women are fond of ornaments, of which earrings, bangles, necklaces and bamboo combs are the most common.

Both boys and girls go naked for several years after birth, wearing ornaments as charms against evil spirits during this period. Children are not given names till four or five years old. The family sleeps in one hut, there being no dormitories for boys and girls, as are found among some other peoples of these islands.

No original marriage customs

There are no remarkable or original customs connected with marriage, which is arranged by the parents of the bride and bridegroom, on proper settlements being made. The sexes, however, have plenty of opportunity of meeting at the great dancing feasts. No priest is necessary to solemnize the contract, but one is often present to invoke the blessing of the spirits. The essential feature is the symbolical act of the couple feeding each other out of a common rice-dish. The parents-in-law are treated with great respect. Polygamy is permitted, but, as in other places, is a luxury which only the wealthy can afford.

Religion a form of nature worship

The Subanos worship many spirits, among others the Spirits of the Sea, the Earth, the Woods, the Rivers and the Protector of the Sick. Their religion rests on a series of alleged revelations made from time to time to the medicine men or *shamans*.

The chief of these are greatly honored and act principally in four ways: as oracles for the spirits to speak through them, as mediums, when they speak to the spirits and receive an audible reply, as priests, to offer sacrifices and make prayers, and as doctors, to cure illness. At their death they are not buried, but are laid in shelters, as it is supposed they return again to earth.

Rude altars are raised to the spirits, on which are placed rice, chickens, eggs, betel, tobacco, and jars of rice-beer. Small boats containing offerings are also set adrift, perhaps with the idea of conveying away evil influences. Omens of various degrees are accepted, some being of sufficient importance to cancel an engagement or stop a journey, while others only have the power of deferring the operations to which they relate.

The Subanos practice many arts of intercession and propitiation, which fall chiefly under the heads of ceremonies to further agriculture, to obtain good hunting and to guard against ill-luck in house-building.

They frequently hold feasts, and at all erect a platform upon which dancing takes place. The host, who has for some time collected provisions for the occasion, sends out invitations to the neighboring chiefs, who acquaint their followers with the news. The invitations are pieces of rattan, the number of knots in which denote the number of days before the feast is to be held. Each guest daily cuts off a knot from his piece of rattan, and when one knot only remains, he knows that the appointed time is at hand.

Before the feast begins, some friend of the host calls attention to the fines to be paid by anyone who does not observe the necessary decorum.

At those feasts which are held in fulfillment of a vow, conditional on the recovery of a sick person, or in memory of the dead, or for some other devotional object, altars are set up and ceremonies performed by the medicine men. These, however, do not have much effect on the guests, who consider that that side of the entertainment is the medicine man's affair.

The Moros

The Moros, originally inhabitants of the northern coast of Borneo, where

IFUGAO WARRIOR WITH HEAD TROPHIES

Among the independent clans of the Ifugao the custom of head hunting grew up largely because the possession of a head was necessary before a feast of victory could be given. With the development of the province and the civilization of the tribes the practice is becoming obsolete.

they are known as Bajaus or Seagypsies, are Mohammedans of a mixed Malayan strain, with a considerable amount of Arab blood. These people invaded the archipelago under description shortly before its discovery by the Spaniards and occupied the Sulu Islands, in which they are principally found under the names Bajaus and Ilanuns, and their piratical expeditions in the early part of the last century were a constant source of terror to the inhabitants of the neighboring islands.

They are short in stature (about five feet, four inches), muscular, slight and active, with small faces, low foreheads and bright eyes.

They are trained to arms from their earliest years and inherit a contempt for work, which induces them to pursue with vigor their chief occupation other than that of fishing, namely, that of raiding their neighbors, whose goods and women supply their requirements and comforts.

In this pursuit they are fearless, sometimes cruel and untiring, though now their opportunities are few and their activities firmly controlled.

The men dress in shirts, jackets and trousers, bright colored sash and headcloth or kerchief, or a turban which indicates that the wearer has been on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Their garments are generally elaborately embroidered and often are of the richest silks. But their chief care is for their weapons, which are the *barong*, a heavy, short chopper with a razor edge and thick back; the *kris*, the *kampilan*, a two-handled sword, and a lance. These arms are of the finest quality and are sometimes beautifully decorated with carving and inlaid with silver.

THE FAVORITE DWELLING PLACE

A race of sea-robbers, the Moros, as might be expected, prefer to dwell on the coasts, building their houses on piles, so that at a moment's notice they can take to the canoes moored at the very door. As sailors and in swimming they excel.

Their attitude towards their chiefs and religion does not appear to be very clearly defined, and is perhaps regulated more by chance and circumstances than by any system of order and thought.

The Sultan of Sulu is nominally ruler of all the Moros, but in outlying islands his authority is not always recognized by those who are supposed to hold under him subordinate positions of trust.

In each village there is a *datu* or *pangiran* by whom the social direction of the people is undertaken.

Their spiritual welfare is in the hands of priests, who are, in turn, subject to higher dignitaries (*serifs*), Arabs, but the religion of the Moro is not strongly developed and is most in evidence when, from distaste of life or in pursuance of a vow, he runs amuck and kills as many heretics as he can before his own life pays the penalty of his enthusiasm.

Their mosques are ill-kept, their fasts irregularly observed, and the abstinences enjoined by their religion neglected if evasion seems likely to escape notice.

The Moro man does not appear to find much amusement in dancing, though a kind of dance (*mincha*) is performed by young men armed with a sword or stick. The women, however, invariably dance at marriages and other occasions of importance, posturing with movements of the arms, wrists and hands. Most of the movement is above the waist, and the feet are hardly used at all.

THE BAGOBO

The Bagobo live on the island of Mindanao, occupying the slopes of

IGOROT AND ILONGOT DANCES

The Igorot dancers, shown in the upper illustration, dance in a circle to the beating of brass gongs. The men follow the leader of the dance, who may be seen in the center of the picture. The steps are varied and the movements often dramatic. The leader is representing on this occasion a fight with a headaxe.

Mount Apo. In color they are a light reddish-brown with an olive tinge, and are generally noticeable for the large plugs they wear in their ears. Both sexes pierce and enlarge the lobes of their ears, the men wearing wooden, the women ivory disks in the apertures. They further enhance their appearance by filing their teeth.

Their dress is extremely elaborate, and has been described as the most picturesque in the Philippine Islands. The men confine their hair with kerchiefs, the edges of which are decorated with beads and tassels. A close-fitting undershirt is often worn, and above this an elaborately beaded or embroidered coat, which opens in front and seldom reaches as low as the waist. The hemp cloth trousers rarely reach the knee, and the bottom of each leg is decorated with a beaded or embroidered band. Two belts are worn, one to hold the trousers, the other to support the fighting or working knives which the man always carries. In lieu of pockets each man has on his back an elaborately-beaded hemp cloth bag, which is bordered with tassels and bells of native casting. Both men and women have many strands of beads encircling the neck and often falling free on the chest. Shell bracelets also are commonly worn.

ARTISTIC DRESS OF BOTH MEN AND WOMEN

The dress of the woman is not less artistic than that of the man. Her jacket is closely fitting around the neck and reaches to the skirt, so that no portion of the upper part of the body is exposed. These jackets are embroidered over the shoulders and arms and at the neck and waist; often they have complicated designs in shell disks or beads.

The women are fond of loading their arms with ornaments of brass and shell, while anklets and leglets with rattles and bells attached are commonly worn.

The Bagobo are nominally subject to one ruler, but the subsidiary chiefs, or *datus*, are not always obedient to his rule. Besides the *datus*, who judge the people and see that offenders against the laws are punished, the priestesses have some power. They are generally women of middle life skilled in weaving, who have been called by the spirits to become "*Mabalian*."

A priestess conducts the ceremonies which are almost perpetually held to gratify the spirits, and makes offerings to them; she is also versed in medicine and attends to the sick. A distinctive dress denotes the honor in which she is held, and any attempt by an unauthorized person to assume these honors is punished by the spirits.

Marriage among the Bagobo takes place at a much later age than elsewhere in the Philippines, the contracting parties being sometimes as much as twenty years of age. The match is usually arranged by the parents, and formally ratified at a meeting of relatives and friends at which two head men, or *datus*, represent the persons most interested. The father of the girl always makes a return present equal to about half of the marriage gift, so that any taunt that he has sold his daughter may be avoided.

Marriage does not take place immediately after this ceremony, but is delayed for a year, during which time the boy works for his future father-in-law. The ceremony is as elsewhere a form of mutual feeding, the bride and bridegroom helping each other to rice out of a common dish. But a priestess first makes offerings to the spirits. The couple then go to their new home, but the bridegroom will

have to do certain services for his wife's family for some years afterwards.

LADDERS AND NOTCHED POLES ENTRANCE TO HOUSES

The houses are generally of one room, raised from the ground and reached by a ladder or a notched pole. Within the house is a platform, which forms the sleeping compartment of the room. The *datus* however, have houses of a larger size, in which two hundred people or so can gather, as they do on festivals or in time of danger. The chief's house is built on the same plan as the others, the warriors occupying the sleeping bench, the wives and daughters having little boxes round the sides and the rest sleeping on the floor.

The walls are covered with spears, shields, looms and instruments of music, and in the room are various devices for the spirits to live in and so be constantly present to favor the occupations of the people and bring them happiness. The spirits are many in number and have under their patronage particular people. For instance, one spirit looks after the warriors, another the weavers, another the brass workers, and so on. The spirit who owns all articles of food and who looks after the fields and crops has a shrine built to him in the middle of any rice field, and after the crop is harvested a great ceremony is held in his honor. One spirit, however, is considered the chief, the spirit who created the world, and no ceremony is performed without first making an offering to him. The lesser spirits, too, are supposed to be his servants.

A curious belief is that held in connection with the guardian spirits, one of whom is thought to be attached to each family. When children of two families marry, their guardian spirits merge into one and become a single spirit guarding the pair.

The spirits who watch over the warriors are particularly powerful and may only be addressed by warriors who have killed one or more persons. Such warriors, among whom may be counted a man who has killed the admirer of an unfaithful wife, can wear a particular dress, and those who have killed several persons in war add a further decoration to their dress.

Occasionally a human sacrifice is offered to the spirits who guard the warriors, and any person who has been troubled by ill-luck during the year, or any family in which there has been a death, may take part in it by making a payment to the *datu* who provides the sacrifice. The person sacrificed is, of course, a captive or a useless slave; slavery being a recognized institution and the need of slaves the chief incentive to raid against the neighboring tribes.

The slave is placed with his back to a tree and his hands are tied high above his head. A prayer is then offered up for prosperity. After this a spear with a very long shaft is placed pointing to the left breast of the victim, and all those who have assisted in the purchase take part in the sacrifice by holding or touching the shaft. At a given signal the spear is thrust through the heart of the victim, whose corpse is later pierced with a number of wounds and then buried. Shortly afterwards a ceremony is held at which two festooned poles are raised on high to mark the occasion. Other ceremonies are held by people of various occupations in honor of the spirits who are their particular guardians. If a man dies in another's house his family has to pay compensation for the ill-luck his death is sure to bring.

The Kremlin of Moscow, the citadel wherein are the royal edifices and churches, and the residence of the Emperor.

In the Kitaigorod, one of the old walled divisions of the city of Moscow still remaining.

THE MODERN RUSSIAN EMPIRE

MORE than half of Europe, added to more than one-third of Asia, or about one-sixth part of all the land of the world—such is the size of the dominions of the Czar of all the Russias today!

This vast Eurasian empire has grown through the centuries from some small inland states about the Dnieper and Volga rivers, till it reached the White Sea, the Baltic Sea, and the Black Sea, and across thousands of miles to the Pacific. Let us try to gain some idea of what there is to see in these 8,500,000 square miles of the earth's surface, in the country and in the towns; also, where and how the 150,000,000 people under the rule of the Czar live and work.

First, we gather that there are vast districts in Russia—as in the north of Canada and the middle of Australia—unsuitable for people to live in. Round the shores of the frozen sea, and on the tundras, or dreary plains, where the winter is dark and long, and the summer is short and hot, very few people live. These few people wander about with herds of reindeer, as in the north of Scandinavia; or they fish, or hunt bears and foxes for their furs, and use sledges, drawn by teams of dogs, to travel over the ice and snow. South of the tundras are miles and miles of forests, spreading darkly farther than the eye can see. For the most part, these are silent, like the icy plains, though, where transport is possible, men gather to cut down and despatch the timber, which is one of the chief products Russia has to sell.

Then, again, to the south of the empire there is a belt of land with very few people living upon it—a belt stretching from the north of the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea to the Sea of Aral, and onwards to the heights of Central Asia. Some of this land is bare save for grass, and there herds of cattle roam far and wide; some is desert and rocky, scorching hot and dry in summer, and cold, with winds cutting like a razor, in winter.

So where shall we look for the subjects of the Czar? The vast majority of them are the peasants, who were serfs, or slaves, only fifty years ago, and other tillers of the soil,

scattered over countless fields growing corn and other crops, where the earth is black and rich, and watered by many rivers. The peasants, for the most part, lead dull, sad lives, and are terribly poor. Sometimes famines cause desperate starvation in the land that produces and sells to other countries great quantities of grain. The intense cold, too, also brings much suffering to the poor, for over much of Russia, except on the Black Sea Riviera, snow and ice last for months. Some go into the towns to work when nothing can be done in the fields; but, in most cases, the poor creatures paste up every cranny that lets in air to their wretched hovels, light a stove, which is kept going, if possible, night and day, and resign themselves to a wretched existence, often stupefied with a strong spirit called vodka.

There are, too, many thousands of miners in Russia. These we shall find about the Ural Mountains—there is an obelisk on one of these with Europe engraved on one side, and Asia on the other—and the Altai, or Gold Mountains, in Siberia, on the borders of China, and on the various coal-fields, chiefly round the important towns of Moscow and Warsaw.

THE UNTOLD WEALTH THAT LIES BURIED UNDERGROUND IN RUSSIA

The mineral wealth of Russia is untold, and is not yet half worked; neither does it go to enrich the country nor to help pay for the costly reforms which are so urgently needed. There are iron, copper, gold, and silver among valuable metals; every variety of precious stones, marbles, and agates; and thousands of beings toil year after year, wresting these minerals from their dark hiding-places in Mother Earth's rich stores. Those who have broken the laws, and, alas! sometimes those who are only suspected of breaking them, are sent—as British convicts used to be sent to Australia—to Siberia to work in the mines.

PEASANT COSTUME, RUSSIA

The peasant costumes of Russia are very varied, and many are really beautiful. Bright colors, such as red, orange and blue, with white and black, frequently enter into the color scheme. Although Russia is not quite a land of flowers, the latter are much used for the decoration of the head-dresses worn.

It is an easy journey from England to Russia, either by land or sea. One of the chief routes by land is via Berlin and Warsaw, taking about three days. If we choose to go by sea, it will take a little longer, even if we shorten it by going through the Kiel Canal, instead of round Denmark to the Baltic then up the Gulf of Finland, past Kronstadt, the great arsenal and sentinel of the Neva, to the city of Peter the Great, the capital of the empire, built on the islands and shores of the Neva, as it winds into the Gulf of Finland.

If we mount the dome of St. Isaac's Cathedral, near the center of St. Pe-

tersburg, and look down on the mass of glittering water in the canals and arms of the Neva, the city seems as if almost floating upon it. The edges are lined with fine quays and docks; and barges and steamers and boats of all kinds ply busily about in every direction, for St. Petersburg or Petrograd, to which latter its name was changed during the European war in 1914, is connected by water with the distant Black, White, and Caspian seas. But if our visit is in winter, a very different scene meets our eyes. All is frozen—the Gulf of Finland, the rivers, the canals, and the lakes.

THE SLEIGHS WITH THE TINKLING BELLS THAT RUSH OVER THE FROZEN LAKES

The ice is strong enough to bear carriages of every description; and rich folk, wrapped up to the eyes in costly furs, glide swiftly along in sleighs, sometimes with three horses abreast, tinkling their bells, over the ice and snow, to enjoy all the balls and theaters and parties of the gay winter season. French is much spoken by the upper classes in Russia, as other Europeans find it very difficult to learn to speak the Russian language. Between St. Isaac's and the Neva is the statue of the founder of the city, with the English quay on one side and the Admiralty buildings on the other. From the Admiralty the three chief streets, or prospects, radiate in straight lines. The Nevski Prospect, like the Unter den Linden of Berlin, is one of the finest streets in Europe. The Kazan Cathedral is in it; and at its end is one of the most celebrated monasteries in Russia—that of St. Alexander Nevski.

THE WONDERFUL CHURCHES OF RUSSIA, COVERED WITH GOLD AND JEWELS

It is difficult for us, who are used to plainer houses of worship, to realize the exceeding richness of the decorations in Russian cathedrals and churches. Not only are they adorned with marbles, agates, jasper, green malachite, blue lapis lazuli, and fine work in gold and silver, but there are many sacred pictures, often set with diamonds and other precious stones, and beautiful embroidered hangings, and many other works of art. The services held in these magnificent churches are very grand and solemn.

Next to the Admiralty is the famous Winter Palace, joined to the Hermitage, built by Catherine the Great, and beyond that is the Summer Garden and Palace. In these palaces are stored treasures of pictures, painted by the greatest artists of the world, and also most valuable and interesting collections which illustrate every part of Russian history. The Crown jewels of Russia are kept in the Winter Palace, and form a most gorgeous display; enormous diamonds, and rare rubies and sapphires blazing from crowns and necklaces and scepters.

The Royal Library, in the Hermitage, contains more than a million books, besides an important collection of manuscripts. Among them are letters from Mary Stuart, Henry VIII, Elizabeth, and Charles I; and there is a writing exercise of Louis XIV in French, "Homage is the right of kings; they do what pleases them." No wonder the boy grew up to declare proudly, "I am the State."

THE SIMPLE COTTAGE OF RUSSIA'S GREATEST RULER

Just opposite these palaces, across the Neva, is the fortress and cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, where all, save one, of the sovereigns of Russia, since the foundation of Petrograd, have been buried. Peter's boat, "the grandfather of the Russian Navy," in which he sailed about and gained much practical skill, is housed near the cathedral. Close by is the interesting cottage where "the giant wonder

PETER THE GREAT SHEARING HIS FLOCK

After Peter the Great returned to Russia from his trip through Europe in 1698, he compelled the people to abandon their ancient modes of dress. He stationed his soldiers at every gate in Moscow with a royal order by which every man's coat, if too long, was cut short; and if his beard exceeded a certain allowance was scissored off with equal arbitrariness.

worker," as Peter was called, lived on the banks of the river while superintending the building of his city. Two rooms and a kitchen were all he required.

In the Artillery Museum is Peter's carriage with which he measured roads, the number of revolutions made by the wheels being registered by the machinery in the box behind—a sort of taxi-cab. On the lid of the box is a picture of Peter traveling, with forests in front of him, and newly built houses and newly laid-out gardens behind him.

There are many manufactories round Petrograd, which also has a large trade, chiefly in produce—timber, tar, hemp, sugar, and beetroot—from the forests and plains close by. Alongside the quays many English and German ships may be seen in the process of loading.

Moscow, the City of Gilded Spires and Painted Domes

We could spend months in Petrograd and not come to the end of all the treasures to be seen in it—treasures from which we can learn much of the story of Russia and its peoples without opening a book; but the whole country lies behind it, and we must hasten on to Moscow, the ancient capital, 400 miles southeast of Petrograd. Moscow is now the center of the railway system of Russia, though the old water routes which connect it with distant parts are still much used.

Over a million people live in both Petrograd and Moscow. The older city is the center of a great cotton trade, and there is a large coalfield in the neighborhood.

South of the city, where the Moskva river makes a great loop, are the Sparrow Hills. It was from here that Napoleon, surrounded by his staff, surveyed the glittering city at his feet. Thousands of housetops, and trees, and the winding river lie before us, but above all stand out the gilded and colored domes of the cathedrals and churches and the grim walls of the numerous monasteries. We have already glanced at the history of this bustling and busy city, and now we must visit the Kremlin, which is the ancient name for a fortress. The Kremlin itself consists of a mass of buildings on the higher bank of the Moskva River, shut in by a wall, with towers and gates. It is, to Russians, one of the most sacred spots, for here are the Synod buildings, where the Council of the Russian Church meets in solemn state. Here are the ancient garments, some richly embroidered with pearls and precious stones, and the jeweled mitres worn by the patriarchs of the Eastern Church. Here, too, in the Cathedral of the Annunciation, the czars have been baptized and married, and in the Cathedral of the Assumption all the czars from Ivan the Terrible have been crowned; in the Cathedral of the Archangel Michael, the old czars were buried.

Many and greatly revered are the relics and sacred pictures called ikons and treasures of jewels and gold and silver, to be found in the various buildings of the Kremlin. In the Tower of Ivan the Great are the famous bells which are rung on Easter Eve with such wonderful effect. The enormous "King of Bells," which is 19 feet high and weighs 198 tons, stands at the foot of the tower, with a piece knocked out of its side weighing eleven tons.

The Web of Streets that has been Spun around the Sacred Kremlin

All round the Kremlin lie streets arranged like a spider's web, and there are many rich monasteries and great churches and fine houses, and beyond are the factories of all kinds and the hovels of the workers.

It is easy now to pass by train to Kiev on the Dnieper, the mother of

Russian towns, and indeed, one of the most ancient towns in Europe. It has many fine old cathedrals, and also important trade and manufactures.

Its companion, Novgorod the Great, near Lake Ilmen, called the cradle of the Russian Empire, bears many marks of its ancient and important history, dating from the times of the Scandinavian Rurik. Here, in 1862, a monument was erected to commemorate the 1000th birthday of the Russian Empire.

Nijni, or Lower, Novgorod, on the Volga, is also a place of much interest, chiefly on account of the great fair which is held there every summer.

It is said that the value of the goods brought to the fair for sale amounts to about $120,000,000; shops and bazars, and all sorts of buildings cover a large space of ground, and the wares set out in them come from every part of the empire and beyond. There are iron goods from Tula, near Moscow; silks from Persia; precious stones and furs from Siberia and Central Asia; tea from China; rich carpets, dried fruits, cotton goods, silver ornaments, and all sorts of wooden boxes and toys made by the peasants.

How east meets west in the city of the great fair

The wharves of Nijni Novgorod, where most of this merchandise is unloaded by sturdy Tartar laborers, are quite ten miles in length; and the various types of people seen selling, buying, and looking on, show that here Europe and Asia meet and trade.

Steamers ply regularly on the great rivers, such as the Volga, now a peaceful highway of commerce with numbers of towns on its banks, and united with the distant seas by its tributaries and connecting canals. Its course approaches to within forty miles of the Don. Many are the stories of fierce warfare and pirates connected with the great rivers of South Russia in the past. Astrakhan is the port near its delta in the Caspian Sea, the headquarters of the large fishing industry carried on in that inland sea.

Odessa, on the Black Sea, is the great port of the South for sending away the corn grown in the fertile parts of Little Russia. Wool is exported from the steppes round the Black Sea, and there are many engineering and shipbuilding works in the neighborhood of this thriving city.

A mighty mountain and a splendid road above the clouds

Railways now run down from Moscow and other parts of Russia to the Caspian Sea, skirting the eastern edge of the Caucasus Mountains, which form such a high barrier between North and South. The highest peak, Mount Elbruz, tops Mont Blanc by about 3000 feet. There is a splendid military road over the Dariel Pass, rising at parts into the clouds, with scenery like that of Switzerland. White peaks against the blue sky, dashing torrents, glaciers and avalanches, all seem especially beautiful after the bare steppes and rocky deserts that are found not far off. Baku, on the Caspian Sea, famous for its rich mineral oil wells is connected by the line that runs through Tiflis with the port of Batoum on the Black Sea.

Rivers of oil that run through pipes six hundred miles long

There are special boats and trains to convey this never-failing oil from the wells whence it springs, but, in addition, pipes are now laid, through which pour daily over a million gallons of oil, straight to the tank-boats and reservoirs at Batoum about 600 miles away.

The rail now pushes on beyond the Caspian Sea, and links together the fertile oases which lie like green islands in a sea of sand, watered by rivers

which afterwards lose themselves in the surrounding dry and rocky soil. In these oases, rice, wheat and fruits are grown. Here, in Russian Turkestan, most of the people are Mohammedans, and numbers lead a wandering life, keeping camels, cattle, sheep and horses wherever sufficient pasture can be found on the dry and barren steppe lands.

But the greatest achievement in linking together the far distant parts of the great empire by means of the iron rails is the Siberian Railway, from Moscow right across Asia to the Sea of Japan, an arm of the Pacific Ocean.

This railway reminds us, in some ways, of those that run across America. It is longer, and much of the scenery is dreary and flat, and often it runs through endless forests. It crosses over the Ural Mountains near Ufa, a district famed for iron mines and foundries, as well as for its riches in gold and precious stones.

THE LONGEST AND MOST MARVELOUS RAILWAY IN THE WORLD

There are no tunnels, and there is none of the exciting, hair-breadth travel that the great lines of the Northwest furnish among the Rocky Mountains. In winter it is so cold on the Siberian line that meat, butter and fish need no refrigerating cars. The water for the engines has to be brought hot, or it would freeze on the way.

A great feature of this line is the number of bridges needed. One that crosses the Volga near Samara is nearly a mile long, and many more are passed on the way through West and East Siberia, crossing over the immense rivers that drain so slowly and quietly across Siberia from the South to the frozen Arctic Sea. The Obi, the Lena, and the Yenisei are all, like the Volga, over 2000 miles long; so is the Amur, which flows east to the Sea of Japan; and many of the tributaries which join the Arctic rivers are long and important, and have helped much in the development of the country. In West Siberia the railway runs through a belt of very fertile black earth, like that in Little Russia, where wheat is grown, and dairy farms are rapidly developing.

Thousands of settlers from other parts of Russia are brought every year by train to fill up the vast silent tracts of Siberia. The line runs past Omsk and near Tomsk, past Irkutsk, round the south of Lake Baikal—a most difficult piece of engineering; then onwards through Manchuria, which belongs to China, to Vladivostock, with some branch lines.

THE MONSTERS OF A PAST AGE WHOSE BODIES ARE PRESERVED TODAY

Many towns are growing up on the line, both trade centers and mining towns. Omsk is the center of the agricultural industry of Siberia. At Irkutsk, the largest town in Siberia, are gold-smelting works, besides other industries, and a university.

The coldest place is on the River Lena where the difference in the winter and summer temperatures is the greatest known. There are islands in the Pacific where the temperature is almost the same all the year round.

At the mouth of the Lena, and in other parts of the Arctic shores, the remains have been discovered of mammoths with long, woolly hair, frozen hard in the icy mud by which they were suddenly overwhelmed ages ago. Their flesh, when first exposed, was actually eaten by the wild animals prowling around. Some of the monsters have been preserved and set up in various museums, and interesting photographs have been taken of these creatures, so miraculously kept for centuries after all their kind had disappeared from the earth.

There is a large trade in ivory from the tusks of these prehistoric animals

SINGING THE OLD FOLK-RUNES

In presenting the Kalevala, the well-known national epic of the Finns, as well as the ancient folk-runes, there are two singers who sit opposite each other holding each other by the hand. While singing they swing their bodies backwards and forwards. Generally they sit facing each other astride of the same bench instead of on opposite benches.

found in the New Siberian Islands, which lie off the mouth of the Lena.

It now takes about ten days to travel the 5000 miles between Moscow and Vladivostock, and the last part of the line is full of reminders of the dreadful war between the Russians and Japanese in 1905, when Russian soldiers were brought across Asia by thousands on the Siberian Railway, to perish miserably in the struggle. The Russian Navy was practically destroyed near Port Arthur on the Yellow Sea.

Many strange-looking people are seen at the stations along the Siberian line—Chinese, Mongols, Russian emigrants, and wild people of the steppes. Some of these join the Siberian line, where it crosses the Urals, from the railway that runs through Orenburg, on the Ural River, from Tashkent, beyond the Sea of Aral, which, again, is joined to the Trans-Caspian line. Much trade with Central Asia comes this way.

The Urals run for over 1000 miles to the Arctic shores, and form a great store-house of mineral riches. Dreary plains of snow and ice in winter, and damp swamps in summer, lie between them and Archangel, on the White Sea, which for long was Russia's only port.

It is easy to reach Finland from Petrograd; and many visitors are attracted there to fish, and boat, and bathe, for the clear lakes are delightful, and the scenery, with its woods and streams, is very pretty. There is enough fall in many of the streams to give water-power for various purposes, such as sawing and wood-pulping, and the towns are numerous and interesting, and most of them are full of re-

COUNT LEO TOLSTOY

minders of Swedish days. Helsingfors, the capital, was founded by Gustavus Vasa in the sixteenth century, and it has a Senate House and a university. Abo is a busy place, with much trade, and has an interesting cathedral, dedicated to the English St. Henry. The Finlanders are very generally educated, and are deeply interested in reforms and good government, and in finding out the best ways of living. Finland is one of the countries where women are counted as citizens, and are allowed to help to choose the representatives who settle public matters, as well as men. They can even be elected as representatives themselves.

How the Autocrat of All the Russias Maintains His Authority

The reins of the government of the vast empire are held in Petrograd. Here the Czar lives, the autocrat, the holder of supreme power, whose will is law, and who is practically above the State Council, the Duma, elected to represent the different governments, provinces, and chief towns. There are other councils, too, part of a machinery that many think out of date, whose members are chiefly men of high rank; also thousands of soldiers spread over the great provinces, to defend or extend the borders of the empire.

The greatest leader of thought in Russia, as well as the greatest influence for gaining freedom by peaceful methods, was Count Leo Tolstoy, who died in 1910. He lived in the very heart of Russia, not very far from Moscow. Until the end of his life this old man of more than eighty, with long white beard and piercing eyes, wore a peasant's smock and led the life of a peasant. He feared no one, not even the Czar.

Some of his books give beautiful, if sad, pictures of the peasants he loved so well—the peasants whose lives he shared, though he was born a rich man—and of the attempts he has made to educate them. Others, again, show in burning words the wrongs suffered by Russian reformers at the hands of spies, police, and governors. His voice, too, rings clear and loud as he denounces the wrongs of the peasants, and the evils of luxury.

The Czar Kolokol, or Great Bell of Moscow, the largest bell in the world.

BRIDE-CHOOSING CHRISTMAS EVE

On Chrismas Eve, in certain villages in Russia, it is the custom for marriageable girls to assemble in the house of the head man. Then the mistress of the house veils each of them. Young men wishing to wed wait outside while this is being done and are then brought in one after the other, each to bow before one of the veiled figures; whereupon the mistress lifts the covering and the pair become engaged. It is more than probable that in all cases the man is well aware of the identity of the girl he chooses in this manner.

In Russia the co-mingling of the East with the West is seen there in all matters of life, custom and tradition. Only those who recognize this fact can ever hope to understand the apparent anachronisms in Russian life and character, or to scratch deeper than the surface of Russian history and tradition. In no set of Russian customs is this impinging of the more conventional ideas of the West upon the laxer and more primitive ideas of the East more clearly marked than in those relating to marriage. The old order and the new dwell side by side in Russia to-day, and at present have in reality mingled very little, and often are indirectly related the one to the other. A wedding, according to the Greek church, to which Russia belongs is instinct with beauty and mystic meaning.

If a Russian girl reaches the age of twenty without having married she usually feels herself, and even is considered by her friends, to be disgraced. To be called an old maid in Russia is, by many girls, considered a great affront. As is the case in Turkey, there are few old maids in Russia, and every woman there either marries or pretends that she is married.

The details of marriages are usually arranged through some priest or through a *svacha* or a matrimonial agent. The latter always knows all the business of the eligible *partis*, their families, the amount of money that the man or girl has, and the requirements of those who wish to marry.

THE BRIDE BOWS TO HER MOTHER-IN-LAW

On arriving at the husband's house the wife has between her thumb and first finger a piece of copper money, which the master of ceremonies takes and throws away as a symbol of purchasing land for her. After she has entered the house, her mother-in-law meets her with bread, and leads her in, whereupon the bride kneels and bows to her.

DRIVING ON SKIS, LAPLAND

The Lapps travel at a great pace driving reindeer. They usually carry a spade stick to assist them to preserve their balance, and to dig beneath the snow for the reindeer moss.

A SUMMER CAMP, LAPLAND

In summer mosquitoes make life in Lapland almost unbearable, and the inhabitants leave the forests for the mountains or sea coast. The reindeer, whose milk is not fit to drink at this season, are set free till the winter.

A LAPLANDER

The Lapps, who may be divided into mountain, sea, forest and river Lapps, are of extremely small stature, the men being very rarely above five feet in height, with legs somewhat short in proportion to their bodies, a low broad nose, and a complexion which, whatever its natural color, is swarthy owing to their habits of life and the severity of the climate.

The Lapps who inhabit a region above the Arctic Circle, and are of Mongoloid origin have from very early days aroused the curiosity of travelers from their dissimilarity to other European races.

Some of the Lapp girls are very pretty, with light blue eyes, fair hair and lovely complexions, and the young men, dressed in their best for the Easter Celebrations, present a dignified appearance. They lead an extremely simple life, being, for the most part, hunters and fishermen. In the winter they live on the outskirts of the great forests and look after their reindeer. When summer comes, they leave their conical huts and go to the mountains following the reindeer, which they let go free.

A LAPP WOMAN AND CHILD

Lapp girls marry at a very early age, but owing to hard work and the severity of the climate soon look old. The babies are always carried about in little cradles, as shown above. Each child at birth is given a reindeer.

THE PEOPLES of these two geographical regions are especially remarkable for their unusual costumes, beliefs and customs. This is particularly true of Switzerland.

COSTUME, BERNE

The peasant costumes of Switzerland differ widely: that of Berne is among the most noted. In some districts special bridal dresses are kept in the parish house and lent to those too poor to buy them.

In Switzerland we often find a strange mingling of pagan, Roman and Christian elements. The division of the country into twenty-two independent cantons has in itself tended to develop numerous local peculiarities, while to this fact we must note that no fewer than four languages are spoken and written in Switzerland: German, French, Italian and Rhæto-Romanic, each of which is subdivided into a great number of spoken dialects, and that the great diversity in climate and soil produces very marked differences in views and modes of life. So in connection with each of the three landmarks of human existence—birth, marriage and death—there are a great diversity of customs.

Among the many significant engagement usages in Switzerland, we may mention one from the Zermatt Valley by which the parents of the lass give their consent to the match by silently offering the suitor a taste of their old family cheese. In Val Verzasca, the courting was done by a symbol; the suitor placed a log of wood before the maiden's door; if she took it indoors, she thereby signified her acceptance of his addresses; if not he had to consider himself rejected.

In Valais, certain parishes own special costumes for the bride and groom, which are kept in old carved chests in the parish house, and are loaned to couples too poor to afford the expense of buying the prescribed garments.

Switzerland is rich in festivals connected with particular crafts and callings. In that of the Alpine herdsmen, the festive procession moves up to the pasture, led by the herdsman in his Sunday best, and the "master cow," often the winner in last year's cow-fight, carrying the milking-stool between her horns; the other cows and the hands follow in due order. The finest cows often wear wreaths.

The real Alpine festivals, however, are the kermesses, some of which take place during the summer, when the chief features are matches (wrestling, throwing, etc.), followed by a dance; others are celebrated in the fall, after

THE ALPINE HORN

The Alpine horn is, or was, commonly used to call back the cattle from the high pastures. Many herdsmen now employ it only to awake pleasing and sustained echoes from the mountains, a performance for which tourists are always ready to pay.

the return to the village, and then the festivals are on a larger scale, and include theatricals, flag-swinging, and more dancing, often assisted by wild-men masks, called "Tschämmeler."

In the actual Christmas customs, in Switzerland, as elsewhere, we find the Christmas songs, the tree, the presents, the Yule-log, and a host of spells, charms and superstitions as to the magic quality of this holy day.

New Year's Eve and New Year's Day, too, are rich in old-world customs, most of them meant to ensure abundance during the coming year. In Eastern Switzerland, especially in Zurich, the 2nd of January is kept as a holiday, with all sorts of jollification. On Twelfth Night, January 6th, the Three Kings go about with the Star, asking for gifts. Their initials, C. M. B., are written over doorways for protection against evil powers.

Naturally, all manner of popular beliefs and superstitions are connected with death, some of them dating back to remote times, and embodying religious views of venerable antiquity. Thus, in some places, the windows are opened immediately after death, so that the soul can fly out; mirrors are covered with black gauze. If the father of a family dies, the wine in the cellar must be shaken, or some one must knock at the barrels, else the wine will turn sour. Flower-pots and bee-hives must be moved, or the flowers and bees will perish. The bees must be told of the master's death. There must always be water in the house at the moment of a death, so that the soul may bathe.

The Scandinavian countries have many customs in common.

In Norway, marriages are celebrated quite on the patriarchal plan. The

BRIDAL DRESS, DENMARK

In Denmark a society has been formed to revive the old costume dances and songs, the members of which are called folk-dancers. They wear the old national costumes richly embroidered with gold and silver.

NORWEGIAN NATIONAL DRESS

The Norwegian national dress still survives at Hardanger and Sactersdal. The short skirt is of dark blue with colored trimmings round the edge. The bodice is laced with silver and the belt is made of metal. The head-dress somewhat resembles that of a nun.

youth chooses his bride from the paternal farm where she helps in the labors of the womenfolk for a year or more before she is definitely married with the patriarch's consent.

In the fjords the bridal procession is celebrated in boats on the water, and is often a picturesque scene, heightened by the bright colors of the women's national costumes. Dancing is popular in both Norway and Sweden, but whereas in the latter country dances are generally in the nature of pictorial ceremonies, such as harvest scenes, etc., in Norway they are more frankly jovial. Particularly exciting are dances on St. John's Eve, when bonfires are lit throughout the country, the people dancing around them and staying up through the night to greet the dawn of the longest day in the year. The custom of lighting bonfires on Midsummer Day which was, until recently, generally observed throughout Europe, is, of course, pagan in origin and of great antiquity. It is a relic of sun-worship, when fires were lit as images of the sun to celebrate the longest day. In Sweden, where the 24th of June is a national holiday, the festival has a greater importance. Hospitality is general in Sweden, Norway and Denmark.

What the ski is to the Norwegian, the pony is to the native of Iceland. It is used for every mortal purpose connected with transport—for the carrying of hay, lumber, riders, and even such heavy objects as pianos, etc., which are slung between two, four, or more ponies, as the case may be. As riders, the inhabitants of Iceland, both men and women, boys and girls, are without a rival.

"TWELFTH-NIGHT" DEMONS, ZURICH (COUNTRY)

From December 25th to January 6th demons are very powerful, and many devices are employed to scare them away. Parades with rattles are common; often the demons are led about.

AN EASTER CUSTOM

Among customs connected with the Easter egg, the symbol of hidden germination, is a curious form of contest. A wager is laid between the representatives of two sides; while one of them is running to a given place and back the other has to pick up a certain number of eggs, sometimes two or three hundred, laid in a long row on the ground, and place them in a tub.

BLESSING THE CATTLE, SPRINGTIME, VALAIS

The blessing of the cattle by the village priest, which takes place every spring, is conspicuous amongst the religious customs observed by the herdsmen of the Alps. The most poetical is the daily prayer-call.

THE SWISS NATIONAL GAME OF "HORNUSSEN"

The ball is driven a great distance with a bat, while the opposing players throw up wooden disks into the air to stop it.

A CANTONAL PARLIAMENT

The cantonal parliaments in the open air, which are still recognized officially in several cantons of Switzerland at the present day, are of old standing. They assemble late in April or early in May, and are attended by every citizen.

THE NATIONAL DANCE. DALICARLIA

The most important time for dancing is harvest time, when the peasants dance in the open air in their national costumes. The men wear blue frock coats, while the women wear skirts, the backs and sides of which are black, the fronts being striped green, red, blue and white. This front part from the distance looks like an apron.

A CHRISTMAS TREE

The tree is decorated with candles, which are lighted on Christmas Eve, the eve always being more important in Sweden than the festival itself. The candles are again lighted early on Christmas morning before divine service and placed in the windows.

SWEDISH NATIONAL DRESS

Dalicarlia is the only province in which the national costumes are at all generally worn, but they still survive to a slight extent in some places such as Leksand. The woman's dress consists of an embroidered bodice with white sleeves, a dark skirt and an apron and an embroidered cap. The man's dress very much resembles that of a Church of England parson, apart from the yellow buckskin breeches and garter ornaments.

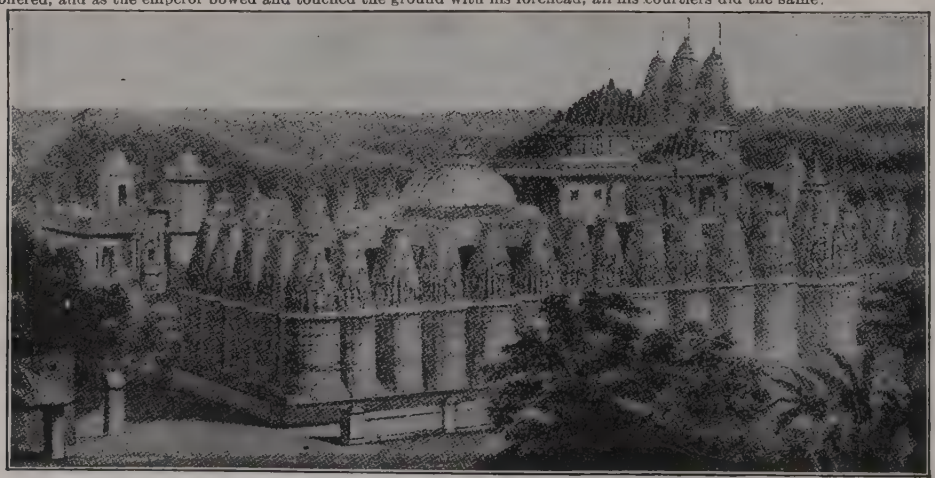
HANNIBAL CROSSING THE RHONE

A Roman fleet and army were sent to intercept Hannibal at the Rhone River to prevent his crossing its broad, swift-flowing stream rom Spain into Italy. But he ferried his elephants across the river just three days before the Romans arrived. The Romans raised a cry of terror, "Hannibal is at the gates."

EPOCH MAKERS OF HISTORY

FOUNDERS OF RELIGIONS
GREAT MEN OF GREECE
CREATORS OF ROMAN GREATNESS
MAKERS OF VENICE
BUILDERS OF FLORENCE
FAMOUS KINGS OF ENGLAND
GREAT COMPOSERS OF MUSIC
LEADERS IN THE FRENCH REVOLUTION
CONQUERORS OF THE POLES

The great Temple of Heaven at Pekin is the most sacred spot to the followers of Confucius. There every year, on a great outdoor altar of porcelain, the Chinese emperor knelt and prayed for the favor of Heaven. Then sacrifices were offered, and as the emperor bowed and touched the ground with his forehead, all his courtiers did the same.



The followers of the Jain religion are not numerous, but they are very wealthy and influential in India, where there are about half a million of them. They have many beautiful temples, and this one of Ahmedabad is a striking example of their elaborate architecture. Jain means victorious, and refers to the victory over self.

CONFUCIUS

ZOROASTER

BUDDHA

MOHAMMED

LAO TSZE

FOUNDERS OF RELIGIONS

MEN WHO SOUGHT TO SOLVE THE ETERNAL MYSTERY

MAN in all ages has been puzzled to know why he exists, and how this earth came into being. Directly he began to think, he found himself surrounded by mystery. He looked around him, and saw the beauty of the fields, the majesty of the hills, the wonder of great waters; he looked upward, and fixed his gaze upon the uncountable stars; he turned his gaze inward, and saw, as it were in a mirror, himself, his own thought, his reflection of "I am I." What did it all mean? Whence? For what purpose? Whither?

Among those who wondered there were some who meditated and reflected. Their meditations led them to believe certain things. They spoke of these beliefs. If their beliefs satisfied the ideas of men, they became teachers. They spent their lives in teaching, and at their death others continued to deliver the message.

Who these earliest teachers were and what they taught we shall never know accurately. The earliest religious guesses of the human race are lost in the silence of the past. It is quite late in the history of humanity that we come upon religious teachers whom we can name, and whose teachings are more or less clear to us. But these men, it must be carefully remembered, had inherited a teaching which goes back to the remote ages of the human race. Two of the teachers whom we meet in the past were natives of India, Gautama, the founder of Buddhism, and Vardhamana, the founder of what is called Jainism. In India, philosophy, which means search after truth, deeply occupied men's minds. Life was easy there; people had much time to sit down and think; and some gave themselves up entirely to guessing at the riddle of man's existence. India may be called the cradle of religion—certainly the cradle of dreamy guesses.

Some five hundred years before the birth of Christ, the two men of whom we have spoken were born in India. The religion of that time was Brahmanism, a loose set of ideas into which we need not inquire. The point is that Brahmanism did not satisfy either Gautama or Vardhamana.

Gautama was the son of an influential man, some say a rajah, or king. He was brought up in a palace, and the world was kept hidden from him until he was married. While he lived in the palace, Brahmanism satisfied him. Alas! his first excursion into the world shattered his beliefs. He saw a broken-down old man, then a sick person, and at last a corpse. These things seemed terrible to his soul. He felt that life was a horror. He sought

to escape from it. Leaving his wife, his new-born babe, his father, his friends, his wealth, and his palace, Gautama went out into the wilderness, alone and penniless and homeless, to think about life.

He came to the conclusion that all solid and material things are useless and quite unworthy of men's affections, because they have the germ of death in them and will pass away. Nothing is worth while. Everything dies. He came to the conclusion that man is born on this earth not once, but many times, and, because each time his spirit is filled with foolish and vain desires, the great object of life should be to destroy all desire. When once a man wishes for nothing, absolutely nothing, when his spirit is filled with nothing but a complete willingness to perish, then at death he passes out of the world forever, enters something called Nirvana, which no European can understand, and is blessed forever by being forever non-existent. He ceases to be. Gautama preached this doctrine and called himself the Buddha, which means the Enlightened One.

It is the most curious religion in the world, if it can be called a religion at all, this Buddhism of Gautama. At one moment you feel how beautiful it is; at the next you are inclined to laugh at its foolishness and uselessness.

THE WOMAN WHO CAME TO BUDDHA AND LEARNED THE SADNESS OF LIFE

Here is a typical story of the Buddha. A poor woman came to him one day with a dead child in her arms. She was wild with grief, and implored the Buddha to give her medicine which would heal her child. Whatever herbs he needed for this medicine she would bring him, even if she had to go to the ends of the earth. He told her to bring a little common mustard seed, adding that it must be brought from some house in which no son, or husband, or parent, or slave had died. The woman went away eagerly to fetch the simple mustard seed.

"Here is mustard seed," everyone said to her. But when she asked if any had died in that house, the answer was:

"Lady, the living are few, but the dead are many."

For a long time she journeyed, and then, seeing the truth of things, namely that death is common to the race, she left her dead baby, and returned.

"Have you the seed?" asked Buddha.

"My lord," she answered, "the people tell me that the living are few, but that the dead are many."

Then the Buddha taught her the great sadness of life, and filled her with the desire no longer to exist. As a matter of fact, the whole teaching of Buddhism in regard to human life is the direct opposite of Christianity.

THE BUDDHIST WHO SEEKS NOTHING, AND THE CHRISTIAN WHO SEEKS EVERYTHING

Buddhism, filled with the melancholy of despair, says: "Nothing is worth while." Christianity, filled with the vigor of hope, shouts: "Everything is worth while." The Buddhist is careless of life and indifferent to suffering. Buddha did not tell people to be good, did not bid them repent, issued no rules of conduct. His whole mission was summed up in this—disgust for existence, here or anywhere. If a man felt remorse for his sins, it showed that he wanted to do better. He must want nothing at all.

Buddhism spread among the peoples of India, and at the death of Buddha it spread still more. Its progress was checked, however, among the Western peoples, who believe in opposing themselves to Nature, and refuse to resign themselves to fate. It is a purely Eastern religion, lacking altogether a universal note.

Vardhamana did not like the Buddha's teaching, and taught a very different religion. Vardhamana, as we think, was a truer teacher than the Buddha, but unfortunately he did not possess the same genius, the same attractiveness, as the other. His converts were fewer.

In the midst of much unintelligible stuff about Nirvana, there is a kernel of solid virtue in Vardhamana's teaching. He taught that everything has a soul, the soul being the "life"—so that grass, trees, animals, have souls.

THE TEACHER OF HOPE WHO FOLLOWED THE TEACHER OF DESPAIR

It is the fate of this soul to journey from body to body for millions of years, and the only escape from the toil of existence lies in practicing four virtues—liberality, gentleness, piety, and repentance. One must be good in word, thought, and deed; kindness to animals is essential. So we see that Jainism is better than Buddhism, because it makes for action instead of for despair and resignation; but the goal appears to be the same—an escape from life. Christ, on the other hand, created in men a passionate desire for life; life, and ever more life; life which fulfills itself in adoration of God, who wishes all His children to be happy.

Nothing is known of Vardhamana, but the Jains still exist, and are very rich.

A GREAT CHINESE TEACHER AND THE CURIOUS LEGEND OF HIS BIRTH

Curiously enough, about a century before the existence of these two teachers in India, there lived two teachers at one and the same time in China. The one was Lao-tsze, who founded what is called Taoism; and the other Confucius, the founder of Chinese philosophy.

The meaning of the title Lao-tsze is nothing more or less than "Old Boy," and legend has it that he was born in a miraculous way, being no less than eighty years old at the time of his birth, his head being covered with white hair, and a venerable beard descending from his chin. But a more appropriate translation of "Lao-tsze" is to make it "the Venerable Philosopher"; and of course the story of his birth is simply a legend.

He was born in a hamlet, and became librarian to the king. In the royal library he pondered over the mysteries of life, and after many years he came to a conclusion, which was that the great thing, the supreme virtue, was humility. Desiring to hide himself, he left the palace and set out for the wilderness. As he was passing through the gate, the warden, who knew him for a holy man, said:

"You are about to withdraw yourself from the world. I pray you write me a book before you go."

Lao-tsze thereupon sat down and wrote a book about half the size of St. Mark's Gospel. He gave this to the warden, passed through the gate, and no man knows where he died.

HOW LAO-TSZE WROTE A GOSPEL AND TAUGHT MEN NOT TO BE ANXIOUS

The little book is the gospel of Taoism. From those few pages grew up an immense religion. If Lao-tsze could stand in that gate now, he would be amazed to see the effect of his farewell to the warden. Let us see how much we can understand of Taoism.

The word "Tao" is the despair of translators. It means "the way," but it means "the wayfarer" as well. It is man and his destiny; God and humanity. We cannot say exactly what a Chinaman understands by it. Lao-tsze's advice is that we should think and act without reflection. We should become like young children. The grass grows without taking

thought; man should live with a similar freedom from anxiety. Everything should be spontaneous, everything done on the impulse. But he carries this advice almost to the point of anarchy. "It is the way of Tao," he says, "not to act from any personal motive, to conduct affairs without feeling the trouble of them, to eat without being aware of the flavor, to account the great as small and the small as great, to recompense injury with kindness."

He hated war; he did not like to see men put to death. He felt no interest in art, culture, and refinement. Life should be without effort. There could be no beauty where there was strain. The pilgrim of existence should never be in haste about anything, never be anxious.

THE BOY WHO PLAYED AT PREACHING AND BECAME THE SAGE OF CHINA

We see that, unlike the two teachers of India, this old philosopher wanted people to be happy; but we cannot help feeling that here also is that despairing "fatalism," or the belief that everything is pre-arranged to happen, whatever man may do, which is the ruling idea of the East as distinct from the West.

A very different man is Confucius, the great sage of China. Confucius and Lao-tsze once had a conversation together. Lao-tsze did not think much of Confucius. Confucius was struck by Lao-tsze. Now, which should we say was the greater man? It was Confucius. It requires genius of the highest order to appreciate those with whom we do not agree. Confucius was born of an ancient and honorable family; but he was poor. In order to earn his living, he studied hard in childhood. He was fond of music, and played on the lute, singing to it. His favorite game with other children was what we should call "playing at being a clergyman." He liked to dress himself up, to strike attitudes, and to conduct religious sacrifices. He was married at nineteen, and became a keeper of stores, and afterwards the controller of parks and herds.

He was twenty-two when he set up as a teacher, and it is said of him that he never refused a scholar who was too poor to pay his fees. But he used to say that when he had explained one corner of any subject, if the pupil could not understand the other three corners for himself, he gave up teaching that lesson.

His fame spread as a teacher, and he became a minister to one of the rulers. So great was his success that he became "the idol of the people, and flew in songs through their mouths." He put down injustice, and banished crime. He was just, honest, fearless, and good. But the ruler began to grow jealous of his power, and Confucius had to go.

The rest of his life is a pathetic tale of homeless wanderings. Accompanied by his disciples, he journeyed from state to state, seeking some ruler wise enough to accept him as teacher and minister. He told his disciples that the greatest reform was to make people understand the meanings of such names as "ruler," "father," "son." If those words were properly understood, unhappiness and misery would vanish from the earth.

HOW THE TEACHER OF CHINA SOUGHT A KINGDOM BUT FOUND NONE

On these wanderings he frequently encountered hermits—men who had retired from the world in disgust. These hermits could not understand how Confucius could be so stupid as to live in a wicked world trying to alter what was unalterable. Confucius said it was impossible to withdraw from men and live with beasts and birds who

did not understand man. "With whom should I associate," he asked finely, "but with suffering man?" So he walked on and on, teaching his disciples, comforting the poor, and seeking for a kingdom to rule.

He found no kingdom. But his teachings have lived from the day of those sad wanderings down to our own time, and Confucius now reigns as no other emperor can reign in the hearts of millions and millions of the human race.

One of his sayings shows the great difference between him and Lao-tsze: "The cautious seldom err." But his whole gospel was more generous than that; he taught the golden rule that we should live exactly as we would have others live: "What you do not like when done to yourself, do not to others." His whole teaching shows that we should do good to others, whether there is need for us to do so, or not. But he said nothing chivalrous or noble about women, and he gave no attention to a life after death. "While you do not know life," he said, "what can you know about death?" All his ideas of goodness concerned man's life on this earth, and it is wonderful that a teacher who left wholly out of account life after death should have had, and still does have, such immense influence over men.

THE PROPHET OF PERSIA WHO LAUGHED THE DAY HE WAS BORN

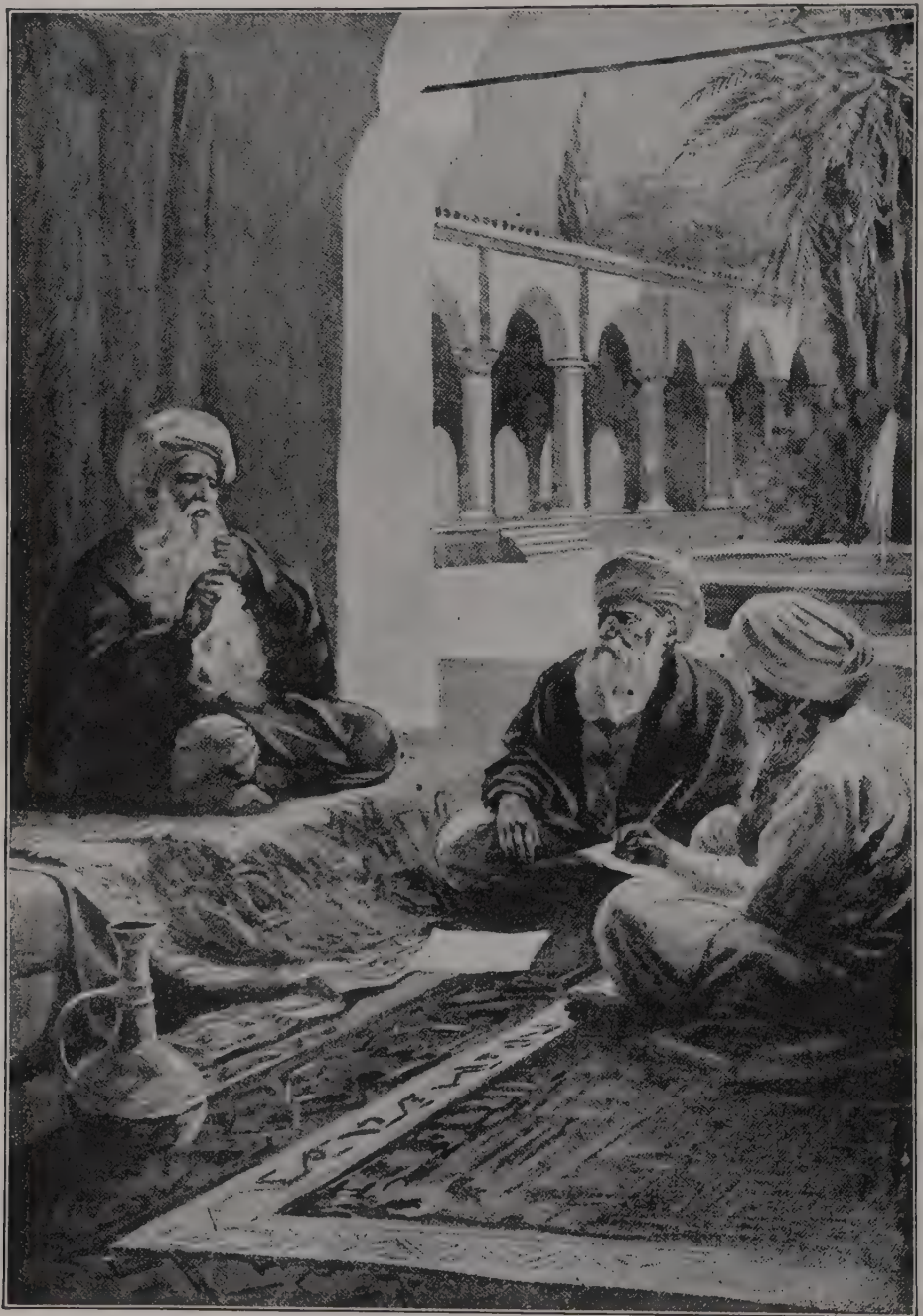
Further back in time than any of these men is the founder of Zoroastrianism, the ancient religion of Persia. Some say he lived before the battle of Troy, others that he was Ezekiel, others that he was Ham, Moses, or Abraham. There is no end to the theories about Zoroaster. The legends about him are also legion. It is said that he began to laugh the day he was born; that the palpitation of his brain was so vigorous that it repelled any hand that might be put upon his head; that he dwelt twenty years in the wilderness and lived upon a single cheese which never grew stale. It is also said that as he came down from meditating in a mountain, fire burst out from heaven which did not consume him; that he desired to be killed by a thunderbolt, and that in this manner he did die, after having taught the Persians all there is to know about this world and the next.

We need not trouble our heads about this enormous nonsense, which always grows up about the original men of antiquity. We may be certain that a man named Zoroaster did live, that he taught the Magi, or Wise Men, of Persia, and that his character was sufficiently unusual to make him revered and honored and obeyed by his disciples.

THE GOOD GOD OF THE LIGHT AND THE EVIL GOD OF THE DARKNESS

Zoroaster divided everything into good and evil. There was a good god and an evil god. Some of the animals, birds, fishes, and plants are made by the good god, and some by the evil. He taught that sacrifices should be made to the good god in order to win from him all manner of good things; and to the evil god also, that he might guard the offerers from dangerous and hurtful and unpleasant things. Light belongs to the good god, and darkness to the bad. The name of the good god is Ormuzd, and the evil, Ahriman. Life after death will be either good or evil, and the whole of our eternal life is determined by our existence here. The soul after death passes over the Accountant's Bridge; its deeds are examined in the book where everything is written; if there are more good than evil deeds, it goes straight to bliss; if the other, it goes straight to pain; and if the balance is equal,

MOHAMMED DICTATING THE SACRED KORAN



Every Mohammedan has the greatest reverence for the sacred scriptures of his religion, called the Koran, a word that means "book," just as our word Bible does. Mohammed pretended that the chapters of the Koran were brought to him from heaven by the angel Gabriel, and to confirm this, pointed to the fact that he himself could neither read nor write. But the general opinion of scholars is that he dictated the Koran.

it waits in a land of shadow for the final decision of the Great Judge.

You will see that there is some sense and some beauty mixed up in this otherwise absurd religion, which is interesting as showing us what men have accomplished in striving to solve the great riddle of existence.

THE ORPHAN BOY WHO BECAME A PROPHET TO MILLIONS OF MEN

And now, last of all, we come to the most recent of religious founders, Mohammed, who is the prophet to millions of the human race, and has sometimes, very ignorantly, been compared with Christ. The truth is that Mohammed probably knew the teachings of Christ. Mohammedanism, some people have said, was Mohammed's effort to rescue the teaching of Jesus from the confusion into which it had been brought by the Christian Church.

Mohammed was born of poor parents at Mecca towards the end of the sixth century. Left early an orphan, he was brought up by an uncle. He was a good boy. At a marriageable age he was sent to act as master of the camels of an elderly woman who traded in Syria. This woman fell in love with her young servant and married him. At forty years of age he was the father of a family, with married daughters. Later he had many wives, and is said to have excused himself for beating one by saying that he flogged her as a woman, not as his wife. Some authors say that he was subject to epileptic fits, and that he pretended that he fell into convulsions because he could not support the glorious sight of the angel Gabriel, who came from God to inform him of things concerning religion.

THE FLIGHT OF MOHAMMED WHO TAUGHT THE RELIGION OF THE SWORD

In any case, he certainly had swoons; and he certainly, on account of his visions, became a feared and honored person.

The magistrates of Mecca, fearing an insurrection, determined to put a stop to his ravings, whereupon Mohammed made his famous flight from Mecca to Medina. Here he determined to assert his religion by the sword, and, gathering an army about him, went to and fro, attacking cities and caravans on the road, until at last, after some years, Mecca itself fell into his hands.

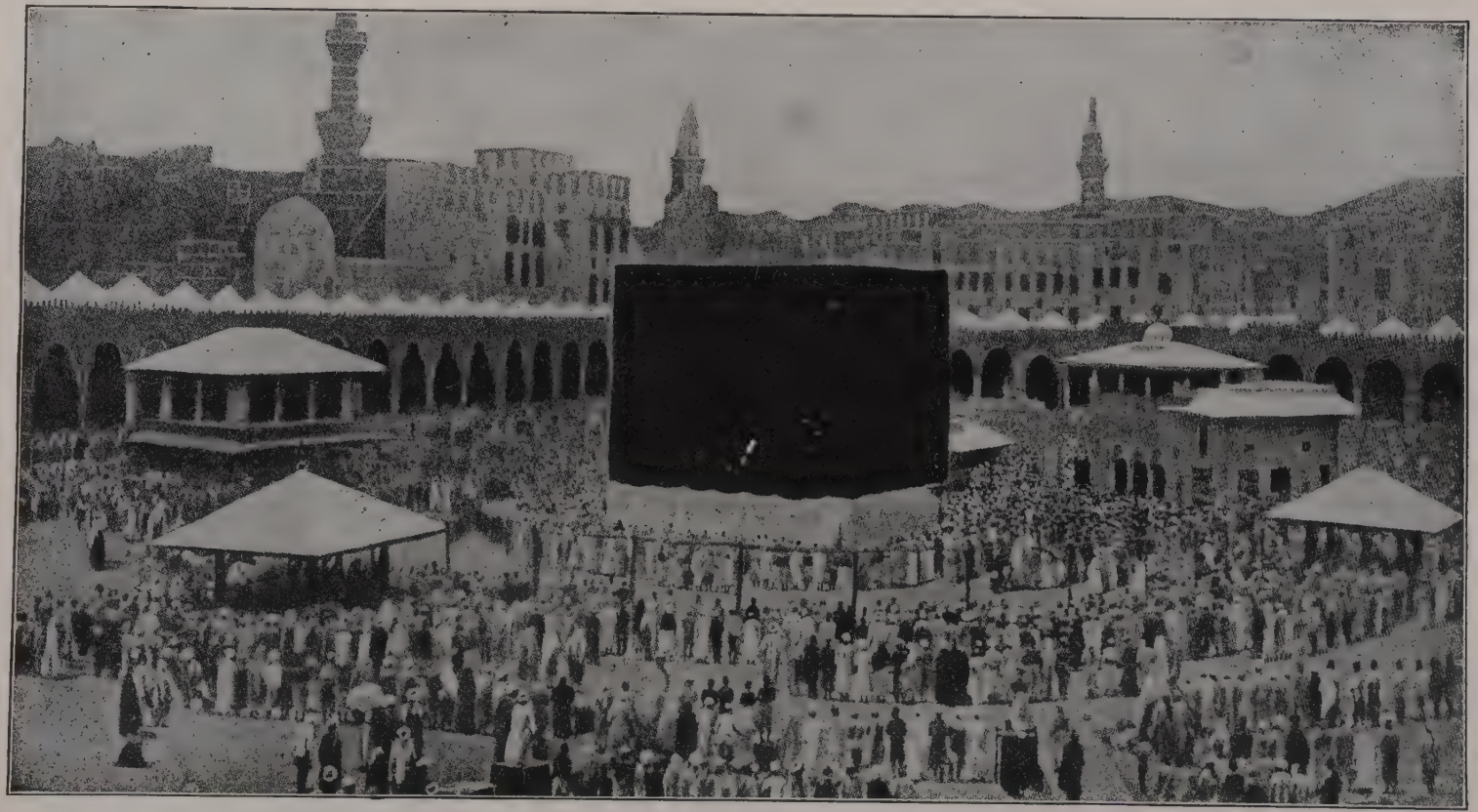
It is certain that Mohammed's followers became enthusiastic in devotion to one God, Allah. It is certain that much of Mohammed's teaching is borrowed from the law of Moses. It is almost probable that his ideas were influenced by the primitive teachings of Christianity. He rejected the Church; but he seems, in his own fashion, to have accepted Jesus. But his ideas altogether lack the exquisite clearness and the transparent purity of the Light of the World

THE KORAN THAT RULES NATIONS AND PREVENTS THEIR PROGRESS

The Koran, the scriptures of Mohammedanism, is a wonderful book. Mohammed is supposed to have been inspired to dictate it, or to get it written, by the angel Gabriel. In it there are fables the most monstrous and horrible; but in it, too, there are occasional aspirations towards immortality, and expressions of repentance, which are finely expressed.

With all its faults, the Koran rules millions of the human race; but it prevents progress. On the whole, it is a book neither very profitable nor very pleasant for any but students of religions. And yet it is this book which Mohammedan children must use as almost their only school-book. Mohammedanism, youngest of all religions, is perhaps the one most distasteful to European knowledge.

MECCA, BIRTHPLACE OF MOHAMMED, AND HOLY CITY OF MOHAMMEDANISM



Mecca was a sacred place of pilgrimage long before Mohammed was born there, but now every Moslem must turn towards Mecca when he prays; and must visit it at least once in his life. In the grounds of a great mosque stands the holy kaaba, shown in this picture, a small temple which every year receives new hangings of rich material from the Sultan of Turkey. No pilgrim visits Mecca without walking round the kaaba seven times and kissing a sacred black stone built into its wall, which Abraham is said to have received from Paradise.

THE GREAT MEN OF GREECE

There were three peoples in ancient times who did much to shape the history of the nations that lived after them. They were the Hebrews, the Romans, and the Greeks. Indeed, some people declare that if anyone says or thinks of anything very wise or very beautiful, we shall find that there was some Greek who said or thought of the very same thing more than 2000 years ago. Moreover, it is remarkable that nearly all of the greatest of the Greeks belonged to one city, Athens. Men about whom we read here include some very great statesmen, one of the greatest of all soldiers and also three of the wisest men who ever lived.

WE will begin with Solon, the Athenian. For it was he who set the State of Athens in order, so that after his time it was difficult for the rich people, or people proud of their high birth, to oppress those who were poor and humbly born. When he was a young man he traveled much; and, returning to Athens, he soon won fame by persuading his countrymen not to submit to their enemies, and by leading them successfully in battle. Then, when there was great discontent and trouble between the rich and the poor, both asked Solon to make new laws which would be fair to both, and he made them promise that they would not change his laws for ten years without his leave. And when he had made the new laws he went away, knowing that if he stayed many would ask him to change the laws again; but that after ten years they would have learned that the laws were good, and would not wish to change them.

The story is told how he showed his wisdom when he came in his travels to the Court of Crœsus, the King of Lydia, who was one of the mightiest kings, and the richest in the world. Crœsus, having shown Solon his great riches, asked him who he thought was the happiest of men, counting that he would answer, "Crœsus, the King." But Solon said, "Tillus, the Athenian; for he lived honorably, and begat noble sons and fair daughters; and at the last he fell in battle gloriously, having given victory to his country." Then, Crœsus asking, "And the next?" Solon made answer, "Cleobis and Biton, whose mother prayed the gods to grant the best of all gifts to her sons for the utter love and tenderness they had shown to her; and on the morrow the twain were found dead. For he is happiest who dies most happily; and no man may be counted happy until he is dead." But of Solon's own dying we know only that he was full of years and honor.

But we may be assured that he would have accounted happy Leonidas, the Spartan, who comes into our talk for one most glorious deed. For when the King of Persia made war upon the Greeks and marched against them, as men say, with the greatest army that ever was seen, he must make his way into Greece through a mountain pass which is called Thermopylæ. And here, because the way is so narrow that but four men could march into it together, the Greeks could have held him at bay with an advance guard of but a few thousand men, till all their forces should be gathered; and at the head of these was set the Spartan king, Leonidas.

But when it was found, after the Greeks had already beaten back an attack, that there was another way, so that a Persian host might pass behind them and attack in great numbers, then Leonidas sent back most of his army, seeing that those who abode at Thermopylæ must be overwhelmed.

How Leonidas and his heroes drove back the Persians at Thermopylæ

But he, with three hundred men of Sparta and seven hundred from Thespiæ, resolved that they would remain and die at their post. And when one said that if they went out to battle against the Persians the very sun would be hidden from them by the flights of the Persian arrows, answer was made, "The better, for so we shall fight in the shade."

Then Leonidas would wait no longer behind the ramparts that had been built; but he and his men, having made ready as if they were going to some festival, marched out in battle array and charged across the open upon the myriads of the Persians, and slew many thousands of them before the last of their own number had fallen. So that the fame of Leonidas and his three hundred Spartans and the seven hundred Thespians has rung across the ages, like a trumpet-call, to deeds of valor from that day until now.

Yet it was not Leonidas, the Spartan who overthrew the Persians, but Themistocles, the Athenian; for the numbers that Leonidas had slain at Thermopylæ was but a tiny part of the Persian king's army which set forth against the Greeks. Now, they would have had a hard task to fight their way across the narrow isthmus of Corinth into the south of Greece, but Athens lay an easy prey for them.

Themistocles makes Athens strong by sea and wins a great battle

This very clever Athenian, Themistocles, however, had seen that his city might become very powerful if she had a great fleet; and by his counsel the Athenians had built many ships, and had become the most skilful sailors of all the Greeks. And now the men of Athens went to their ships, having set their women and children on an island hard by; and it was now the counsel of Themistocles that they should do battle with the Persians by sea; for if they beat them on the sea, then the Persians, being so far from their own country, would find themselves in danger by land also. The Greeks of the south, which is called Peloponnesus, thinking their own land secure, were not eager to fight by sea, but Themistocles was so sure of winning, that when some of the Greeks talked of sailing away, he sent a message to the Persians bidding them send ships and block up the way of escape, pretending that he had goodwill toward them. So when the other Greeks found there was no other way, they made ready for a sea fight.

Then was fought the battle of Salamis, which was won chiefly by the skill and valor of the Athenian fleet, led by Themistocles. And the battle of Salamis really decided the war, though afterwards there was another great battle by land, in which also the Greeks were victorious. But in later days Themistocles quarreled with the Athenians, and betook himself to the King of Persia, making pretense of friendliness; and he died in Persia, having taken poison, men said, to kill himself.

Athens becomes powerful and beautiful under the rule of Pericles

After Themistocles had gone from Athens, the guidance of the affairs of the city came, before very long, into the hands of a great statesman named Pericles. Now he, like Themistocles, saw that the greatness and the power of Athens depended on the strength of her fleet; and he made it his aim to set Athens at the head of the sea-going states, so that all should be, not exactly her subjects, but united in a league of which she was the acknowledged chief.

Under his guidance Athens increased not in power only, but in wealth and beauty and knowledge. For the great-

est of sculptors, Phidias, and great poets such as Sophocles lived at Athens, and it became the most beautiful city in the world; and the wisest of the men and women of the time were the friends of Pericles. There are many people who think that of all Greek statesmen he was the greatest, and certainly there was none who did more for the good of his own city of Athens. And yet not Pericles nor any other thought of trying to unite the Greeks into one great nation, which could act in harmony; but all the cities remained separate, so that there were endless strifes and rivalries between city and city.

Of all these rivalries the greatest was between Athens and Sparta. For Sparta thought to set herself over all the Greeks; but Athens, with Pericles guiding her, would not suffer Sparta to rule after this fashion, and gave aid to other cities which would not obey the Spartans, and there was war, so that in the hour of the death of Pericles, and for some while after, it seemed as though Athens might become the leader of all the Greeks. But after him there was none who could see so clearly and rule so wisely as he; and Athens was worsted, through striving to make a wider empire than she was fit for.

Thus the Spartans won the chief power, so that nearly all the states of Greece had to bow to their will, though they were not altogether subject to her. And then it was not Athens, but a neighbor state called Thebes, which set Sparta at defiance, and for a short time became the most powerful of the Greek states.

THE TWO FRIENDS WHO SAVED GREECE FROM THE TYRANNY OF SPARTA

This was due mainly to two men —Pelopidas and Epaminondas—who were very dear friends; but most of all to Epaminondas. Pelopidas was a man of great wealth, very generous, a very daring soldier, and well beloved. But Epaminondas was poor.

Yet, of the two, Epaminondas did more; for, in the first place, he did not care about his own greatness at all; and, in the second place, he did not seek to make Thebes great only for the sake of Thebes, but that his city might deserve well of all the Greeks. And he trained himself in body and mind, so that there was nothing he could not do well, whether to persuade men by speech, or to fight valiantly himself, or to train an army and lead it in war. And when the Thebans chose him, with his friend Pelopidas, to lead them, he gave defiance to Sparta, whose soldiers were thought to be invincible, and by his skill as a general he overthrew them at the battle of Leuctra, though their numbers were the greater. And the Thebans won freedom for other states from the tyranny of Sparta. But at last, when Epaminondas was warring against Sparta, there was a great battle at Martinea, and the Spartans were routed. In the hour of victory Epaminondas received a mortal wound, and, in their grief at the loss of their loved chief, his men had no care to pursue the foe; nor was any left after him to carry on his work as a statesman or even as a soldier, so that the strifes and rivalries of the Greek states continued.

THE COMING OF KING PHILIP OF MACEDON AND HOW HE TRIED TO RULE GREECE

While the Greek states continued to waste themselves in their rivalries, there was being built up northward, in Macedon, a powerful kingdom, which was Greek, too, although it had been less civilized than the rest of Greece. The building up of the power of Macedon was for the most part the work of the crafty King Philip, and soon men began to see that

Philip meant to make Macedon the head of all the Greek peoples. Moreover, to some it seemed that Philip would not be content with that, but intended really to make himself master of the whole land. Therefore the great orator Demosthenes tried hard to make the people of Athens oppose the plans of Philip.

Now, this Demosthenes was one of the most wonderful orators in the world, so that to this day people study his speeches in order to learn how to speak so as to persuade multitudes of people. It is said that he made himself so good a speaker that he could speak quite distinctly with pebbles in his mouth, and could recite poetry aloud though he was running uphill; and he studied very hard so as to learn the best possible way of expressing whatever he wished to say.

How Demosthenes the Orator was Driven into Exile to Die

Now Demosthenes could not make the Athenians strong enough to resist Philip; still, he spent the best part of his life in trying to encourage the Athenians and to persuade other Greek states to help them. The speeches which he made against Philip are called the "Philippic Orations," and so when other people make speeches of the same kind they are called "Philippics." After Philip was dead, and when his son Alexander the Great was in Asia, the Regent of Macedon caused Demosthenes to be sent away from Athens; but afterwards the Athenians revolted and Demosthenes came back.

The Macedonians had him driven out again, but when his enemies went in pursuit of him he knew that he would be put to death, and so he chose rather to die by taking poison himself.

During the last twelve years of the life of Demosthenes, Alexander the Great, the son of Philip of Macedon, made himself one of the most famous conquerors of all time, though he was only thirty-three years old when he died. For he had already learned warlike skill from Philip; and Philip, when he had made Macedon the chief of the Greek states, had already planned that the Greeks should send an army to make war on the great kingdom or empire of Persia, although the Persian king's dominions reached all the way from the borders of India to the Mediterranean Sea, and even Egypt belonged to him; and the Greeks could only send a very small army against his great one.

Still, when Alexander was only twenty-three, he led his army into Asia Minor, which was the western part of the dominions of King Darius of Persia, and there he routed the Persians at the battle of the Granicus. Then Darius met him with another great army at Issus, and was routed again. After that, Alexander decided first to conquer the western lands completely, and he overthrew the cities of Phœnicia, which is just on the north of the Holy Land, and then Egypt made submission. Then he marched again against Darius, and overthrew him utterly at Arbela; and soon after that Darius was murdered.

Death Conquers the Conqueror and His Soldiers Break up His Empire

But when Alexander had conquered the whole Persian Empire he was still not satisfied, but marched on into India, and there he overthrew a brave Indian king who was called Porus; so that no king in the world before Alexander had ever been the lord of so vast an empire. All this Alexander did in ten years. But he had no chance of doing more, for very soon after he died of a fever, and the generals of his army divided the great empire up among themselves.

Alexander the Great was the man of action and energy. During ten years he led a mighty army and conquered Persia, Egypt, and Phœnicia, and even marched on to India, where he defeated a brave king named Porus. No king had ever before ruled over so vast an empire as Alexander, who is said to have sighed for other worlds to conquer. When only thirty-three years old, however, he died of fever, and his empire fell to pieces.

THE DEATH OF SOCRATES THE GREEK PHILOSOPHER, SURROUNDED BY HIS SORROWING DISCIPLES

Between the time of Pericles and the time of Alexander there lived three of the very wisest among all men. The first was Socrates, who was born just at the time when Pericles was becoming well known in Athens; and the next was Plato; and the third was Aristotle. They were all philosophers, which means, in the first place, lovers of wisdom; and that is a name given to people who care more about knowing what is true and good than about worldly success, and try to help other people how to think, which is a very much more difficult thing than some people suppose.

PLATO AND SOCRATES, THE LEADERS OF THE WISE MEN OF ATHENS

Now both Plato and Aristotle wrote a great many books; but Socrates wrote no books at all. However we know a good deal about him; because, for one thing, a man named Xenophon, who admired him very much, wrote a book about him; and, for another thing, there was a great dramatist at Athens who used to laugh at him, and bring him into his plays for other people to laugh at; and besides that, Plato has shown us still more clearly what kind of man he was; for Plato wrote a great many of his books in the form of "dialogues," or conversations, in which Socrates is supposed to be talking to other people.

And though we may be pretty sure that, when Plato wanted to teach people something, he often pretended that it was Socrates from whom he had learned it, though he had really thought of it himself, still, we know from that the kind of way in which Socrates must have been in the habit of talking, and that he was not only wise and good, but witty as well, and that his friends loved him deeply.

It was a curious thing that the Greeks, who were usually good looking, found it difficult to believe that anyone could be both wise and ugly; but Socrates was quite ugly. Still, he was strong and sturdy, and when he had to go to fight in the Athenian armies he was a good soldier. But there was one very odd thing about him, which was that now and then he would suddenly fall into a trance, and stop quite still, unconscious of anything that was going on about him; and then the trance would come to an end, and he would go on just as if nothing had happened.

Now Socrates thought that the most important thing in the world to get is knowledge, and the most important kind of knowledge is to know yourself, because the better you know yourself, the more you see how little you really know, and how much of what you think you know may be quite wrong.

HOW SOCRATES WAS CONDEMNED TO DIE FOR MAKING PEOPLE THINK

And by always asking people why they thought this or that, he set them thinking and trying to see the reason of things. But people who had no good reason for what they thought got annoyed, and when they found young men beginning to say that things were wrong which they had been in the habit of calling right, they said that Socrates was corrupting the young Athenians.

So Socrates was brought before the judges for misleading people—just as at the time of the Reformation people used to be tried and punished for teaching what was called heresy; and he was condemned to death, and was made to drink hemlock. But his friends were allowed to see him when he took the poison; and all the time he was dying he talked cheerfully to them, having no fear of death; and his talk was chiefly intended to help them to feel sure, as he was himself,

that we have souls which are immortal, and do not die when our bodies die.

PLATO, THE PUPIL OF SOCRATES, AND ARISTOTLE, THE PUPIL OF PLATO

Plato was one of the young men who were disciples of Socrates, and he went on teaching people afterwards what he had learned from Socrates, and a good deal more which he saw must be true if what he had learned from Socrates were true. The books that he wrote are very wise, but are written in such a delightful way that anyone who can understand them loves them though sometimes they are very difficult indeed to understand, because the things he tried to explain still puzzle very wise people.

After Plato came Aristotle, who was a pupil of Plato's, tutor to Alexander the Great. He too, wrote many books; but he did not look at things quite in the same way as Plato, and because people who love knowledge for its own sake are sometimes inclined to look at things in Plato's way and sometimes in Aristotle's way —but none can help doing it in the same sort of way as one or the other of them—it is sometimes said that all philosophers are either Platonists or Aristotelians, even though they may not think so themselves. For Plato thought in the way that poets think, and Aristotle thought in the way that men of science think.

It is a curious thing that Aristotle did so much to teach men how to set about finding out the way in which Nature works, that a time came—hundreds of years later—when people began to think it was really wicked to say that Aristotle could have ever made a mistake. And, on the other hand, many people have found that, though they were Christians, they understood their own religion all the better when they had studied the teachings of Plato, though he died more than three hundred years before Jesus was born.

THE LAST OF THE MEN WITH THE ANCIENT SPIRIT OF GREECE

After those days the Greek states seemed to lose their power of giving the world men of the greatest kind; they seemed to be depressed by the leadership of Macedon; and a long time afterwards they were swallowed up in the great Roman Empire. But there is one man who lived not very long before that happened whose name deserves to be remembered. This was Philopœmen, who was afterwards called "the last of the Greeks," which meant that he was the last of the men of importance who showed the old Greek spirit of fearless courage and high-minded patriotism. He tried to persuade the different cities of Greece that they ought to think of each other not as rivals, but as one nation.

Philopœmen was famous for daring and skilful leadership in time of war, and was honest and free from self-seeking. Once, when he arrived at an inn, the inn-keeper's wife thought that he was Philopœmen's servant, and set him to lay the table and wash the dishes, until her husband came in and recognized him. In the end he was thrown from his horse, taken prisoner, cast into a dungeon underground and poisoned; and in this way died "the last of the Greeks."

ROME IN THE AGE OF AUGUSTUS

THE CREATORS OF ROMAN GREATNESS

The city of Rome stood on the banks of the River Tiber, in Italy, hundreds of years before the first Christmas Day. As time passed, this "city of the seven hills" became the mistress of almost the whole of the world that was then known. After a time, Rome's lordship was taken away, and new empires arose; but Rome itself, when the influence of Christianity came into the world, won a new dominion over the minds of men, the head of the Christian Church in Rome being looked upon as the head of the Christian Church everywhere. Though that dominion, too, was shaken off by the countries which became Protestant, many Christians still in all nations look upon the Pope of Rome as their head. Rome still stands upon the banks of the Tiber, so that men call it "The Eternal City."

FIRST GREAT MEN OF ROME

THE Romans said that their city was founded by a king named Romulus, and that after him there reigned six more kings. Five of those six helped to make Rome great, either because they were skilful warriors, or because they made wise laws. But the seventh king was called Tarquin the Proud, because in all things he sought his own wealth and pleasure, trampling upon the people, instead of making it his aim to secure their welfare like the wise kings before him. And his sons were like him.

There was a young man among the nobles whose name was Lucius Junius; and he was also called Brutus, which means "blockhead." But, in truth, he was keen-witted, and only made a pretense of dullness. For he saw that Tarquin the Proud feared clever men, and sought to destroy them, lest they should become powerful and overthrow him. Yet, though Tarquin did not know it, there was no one in Rome whom he had more cause to fear than this Brutus.

There is a story that the king once sent two of his sons, and Brutus with them, to consult the Oracle of the temple at Delphi, which men believed could foretell the future. And when they had asked the questions as the king had told them, then the sons of Tarquin asked the Oracle: "Which of us shall rule in Rome hereafter?" And the Oracle answered: "He that shall first kiss his mother." As they left the temple, the stupid Brutus tripped and fell; but he had done this on purpose, so that he might kiss the earth, which is the mother of all men. The rule of Tarquin grew worse and worse; and nobles and people groaned under his tyranny, till their anger was ready to break out in fierce flame. And then a son of Tarquin, named Sextus, did wrong to Lucretia, the wife of one of the nobles—wrong so deep and bitter that when she had told her story to her husband, in the presence of her father and Brutus and another noble, named Publius Valerius, she slew herself with a dagger.

Thereupon Brutus dropped his pretense of stupidity; he snatched the dagger from her heart, and called on all present to pledge themselves to rid Rome of the tyrant Tarquin and his evil sons. Then they went out and told the people in Rome what had befallen; for Tarquin was away at the head of an army. Brutus made haste to the camp, and there he called upon the soldiers to rise up against Tarquin. And Tarquin and his sons had to fly to another city, nor could they ever win back their power in Rome. But the Romans made oath that they would never again have a king in Rome, and instead of a king they set two consuls at the head of the state. One of them was Brutus.

BRUTUS, WHO DROVE THE TYRANT FROM ROME AND CONDEMNS HIS OWN SONS

So the name of Brutus was ever held in high honor in Rome, as the man who had driven the tyrant forth from her gates and made her a free Commonwealth. Moreover, it is told of Brutus that he set to all men an example of stern justice, even when it must have almost broken his own heart. For it befel that his own sons were drawn into a plot to restore the Tarquins; and when Brutus learned the truth he did not use his power to spare his own flesh and blood, but spoke the doom of the traitors with his own lips. Reckoning his duty to his country more highly than his love for his family, he condemned his sons to death.

For many a long year the Romans had constant wars with one or another of the neighboring cities, and many troubles within between the nobles, who were called Patricians, and the commons, who were called Plebeians. For the nobles held the rule and were often oppressors. And slowly the commons gained more and more share in the government. A time came when the power of Rome was in danger from the victory of the city of Veii. The Romans sent out armies and besieged Veii, but could not take it until they placed their forces under the command of a noble named Marcus Furius Camillus.

CAMILLUS, WHO WON GREAT FIGHTS AND BADE THE CHILDREN FLOG A TRAITOR

Now Camillus found that he could make a hidden passage underground, called a mine; and, unknown to the people of Veii, he made a mine under the wall of Veii, and dug it so that his soldiers could burst their way out into the temple of Juno. Then he ordered a great attack to be made on the walls, so that all the people of Veii gathered to defend them. Then, when the whole of the city was defending the walls, Camillus himself led a troop into the mine, and they broke out and opened the gates of the city, so that its people were utterly conquered.

It is told of Camillus that in one of the wars, when he was besieging another town, he won honor for the Romans by a generous action. For there was a schoolmaster who thought to win favor with the Romans, and by a trick managed to take the school children out of the town and bring them to the Roman camp, so that the people of the town would agree to anything to get the children back. But Camillus bound the traitor's hands, and bade the children flog him back to the city. Some say that afterwards, when the Gauls sacked Rome, Camillus, who was in exile, returned and defeated them. Some say that his last public act was to persuade the leaders of the nobles and commons to agree together and be at peace. But, at any rate, his memory was honored as of one who, all his life, did good service to his country.

REGULUS, WHO GAVE UP HIS LIFE FOR THE SAKE OF ROME

The next famous man of whom we have to tell won no great victories for Rome. For he was in command of the Roman army when it was warring against the city of Carthage, in Africa; and the men of Carthage defeated the Romans and took many prisoners. Among the prisoners was the general Regulus. The victors held Regulus captive; but when some Carthaginian nobles were captured in another battle with the Romans they sent messengers to Rome, and Regulus with them, offering to set Regulus and other prisoners free if their own men were set free. But Regulus, instead of begging the Romans to agree, so that he might come home again, told them that it

BRUTUS CONDEMNING HIS SONS TO DEATH

THE TRAITOR SONS OF BRUTUS APPEALING TO THEIR FATHER FOR FORGIVENESS

THE GRIEF IN THE HOME OF BRUTUS WHEN THE BODIES WERE BROUGHT IN

In the early days of Rome, when Tarquin the Proud was king, the king and his sons were so cruel that the people groaned under them, and a young nobleman named Brutus called upon the people to drive the Tarquins out of Rome. They were driven out, and afterwards some false Romans plotted to bring them back. Among the traitors were Brutus's own sons; and it was then that Brutus set to all men an example of stern justice. He condemned the traitors to death, though they were his own sons.

would be wiser to refuse, since they had less need of him than the Carthaginians had of their men. So it was that Regulus returned to captivity in Carthage, rather than let Rome suffer even a little for his sake. And for this he deserved the higher honor, because he knew that the Carthaginians would be wroth with him, and put him to a painful death.

In that war the Romans defeated the Carthaginians in the end, but the power of Carthage was not destroyed; and some of her people went to Spain and there made a new power, drawing the peoples of Spain under their rule or into company with them. They built a city which they called New Carthage, and they did this because they thought that, possessing Spain, they would again be able to make war successfully against the Romans.

SCIPIO, THE YOUNG HERO WHO WON SPAIN AND AFRICA FOR ROME

It was in one of those battles with Carthage that Cornelius Scipio first fought, being then but a boy. They say that Scipio saved his own father's life. After that his father was sent to Spain, to fight the Carthaginians who were there, and was killed. Then none of the Roman generals were willing to go to Spain, knowing how hard a task was before them; but Scipio, though yet very young, offered to undertake it. For he felt sure in his heart that he could conquer Spain for Rome.

Moreover, the people were so moved by his noble bearing and his persuasive speech, and by the courage he had shown, that they gave him the command. When Scipio was come to Spain the soldiers took heart; for they had loved his father, and now they followed the son with fearless devotion.

First of all, they captured the enemy's city of New Carthage, and then defeated them in other battles, until their power in Spain was broken altogether. Then he returned to Rome, and persuaded the Romans to send him with an army across the sea against Carthage itself.

The power of Carthage was laid low, and Scipio was called Africanus, because he conquered the land of Africa. At last there came a time when he saw that some men envied him, and others distrusted him for the tales that were told of him by his enemies, and then he ceased to take part in public affairs, scorning to defend himself against charges of baseness. So Scipio passed the end of his days as a private citizen.

CATO THE CENSOR, WHO WAS FAMOUS FOR THE ROMAN VIRTUES

Among these enemies of his was Marcus Porcius Cato, called the Censor. Cato was a man who was famous for what men call the old Roman virtues, for he proved himself a warrior reckless of his own danger, yet shrewd and wary, and one who held with firm doggedness to every purpose he set before himself and to every rule of life he laid down. Moreover, he scorned all manner of easy living, and would have had all men to live as carefully as himself. But Cato was hard and harsh, not fearing pain himself, and careless whether others suffered, regarding only the things that he considered useful, and despising the things that make life lovely and gracious as well as the things that are merely pleasant and the things that are harmful. And so, because Scipio was not of a like ungracious temper, Cato was very ready to think ill of him.

Cato's name of Censor was given to him because at Rome Censor was the title of a great officer of State who was guardian of public morals; and when Cato was himself appointed to this

office he was very rigid in punishing whatever he thought foolish or unseemly, fearing the great and powerful no more than the humble and mean, so that his rule as Censor remained in men's memory.

THE GRACCHI, WHO STROVE FOR THE PEOPLE AGAINST THE NOBLES

The daughter of Scipio, who was called Cornelia, was wedded to a certain Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus; and they had two sons, named Tiberius and Gaius, whose mother cared nothing to make a show of jewels, although she was wealthy, but would point to her two boys and say: "These are my jewels."

Now, after the Romans had overthrown Carthage, their armies vanquished many foreign foes, and the power of Rome became very great. But in Rome and in Italy the people suffered grievously. For since the old nobility had ceased to have all the power, a new order of nobles had sprung up out of those families whose members had held high office, and these new nobles tried to keep the power all in their own hands.

These senatorial families had managed to get possession of the new lands that Rome had won, so that everywhere were great estates tilled by the slaves of these nobles, and the old free yeomen farmers of Italy seemed likely to disappear altogether. But when Tiberius Gracchus was grown up he tried to make things better for the common folk, and to make the landowners give up to them the lands to which he said they really had no right. Still, though he wished that they should be fairly paid for what they lost, the nobles were very angry, and said that Tiberius was going about to win the favor of the commons and to make himself king.

The nobles and their followers then fell upon the followers of Tiberius, and Tiberius himself was struck down and murdered in the fray. But Gaius, the younger brother, waited his time, and after some years he, in turn, came forward as the people's champion, seeking also to give power to other Italians by making them citizens of Rome. But most of all Gaius desired to humble the nobles who had done his brother to death, and by his eloquence and boldness he came near to gaining his end. Yet, when they saw that the nobles were better prepared to fight, his supporters were afraid, and again the nobles and their followers fell upon them and slew many. And when Gaius saw how fickle the people were, and that they were willing, as he said, to remain slaves, he bade his faithful servant to thrust his sword into his heart, and so the servant slew him, and then, for the love of his dead master, slew himself by his side. But in after time the people honored the memory of these brothers, whom we know now as the Gracchi, and set up a statue of their mother Cornelia, writing thereon not that she was the daughter of the great Scipio, but that she was "the mother of the Gracchi."

Now you can see how the Roman state became divided between a Senate party and a popular party; and while the foreign wars went on, it came about that whenever a successful general won the favor of his soldiers he could use his army to give his own party power. Thus the popular party triumphed under Gaius Marius, and again the Senate's party seemed to have crushed them under the merciless leader Sulla. The blood of both parties was spilled like water, and instead of seeking the common weal, it seemed that every man cared only for his own gain, or, at best, for the gain of his party, so that some began to see that there would be no settled

order in Rome, but endless strife, until there should arise some one man strong enough and wise enough to crush all quarreling parties, and to take the government into his own hands and rule with the good of the whole state as his aim.

Among the Senate party, their great captain Sulla saw signs of great talent in a very young man whom we call Pompey. Therefore, Sulla raised him to high command, while other people sneered at him as a boy. But the boy led armies with great success, and when he returned from Africa, where he overthrew Sulla's enemies, Sulla hailed him by the title "Magnus," which means "great." But, after all, he did not prove to be really a very great man, though for a long time it seemed that he might possibly become the savior of the Roman state. For he was a skilful soldier, and, besides that, he was kind-hearted, and had a way that made him popular.

Then, while he was still a young man, he broke away from the Senate party, and became the chief of the people's party, and almost the chief man in the state. Soon after this he was appointed to destroy the bands of pirates who sailed over the Mediterranean Sea, and then he went to take command of the Roman armies in Asia, where there was a war going on against a barbarian monarch.

It was some years before Pompey finished that war successfully, and during the war there was in the city another man who was laying his own plans to become master of the Romans. This was the most famous of all Romans, Julius Cæsar.

CÆSAR AND POMPEY, THE FOREMOST MEN IN ROME

Cæsar had always belonged to the popular party, though he himself belonged to a noble family. He saw that if he wished to win power he must make himself a favorite with the people; and he saw, too, that the next thing would be to make Pompey feel that if they two joined together they could rule the Roman world; although there was a third, Crassus, who, because of his vast wealth, was a sort of rival to Pompey. When Pompey came back from the war with Mithridates, Cæsar managed so that the three agreed to act together; and no doubt Pompey thought he was himself going to be the chief of the three, seeing that Cæsar was as yet without practice in the wars, though famous as an orator. Yet it was Cæsar who devised measures that pleased the people.

Now Cæsar knew very well that the time would come when there would be open strife, whether he or Pompey should be the head of the state, and he got himself appointed to be governor of the province of Gaul, which means France. But as there were many warlike tribes in Gaul he required an army to bring them into subjection, and with this army he very soon showed that he was one of the most skilful soldiers who ever lived, with a wonderful power over his followers. Cæsar wrote a book of his wars in Gaul, which is a model of what such a book ought to be While he was there he crossed the British Channel and fought the Ancient Britons; but he only wished to see what the country was like, not to conquer it, so he went back to Gaul.

HOW THE STRIFE GREW UP BETWEEN CÆSAR AND POMPEY

But Pompey stayed at Rome, and made friends again with the Senate party. The news of Cæsar's victories in Gaul made him afraid that his rival would come back to Rome with his army and seize the chief power in the state; and Pompey thought that by staying at Rome he could best make

sure of being strong enough to check Cæsar. And when Cæsar saw that the time had come when he must either march to Rome at the head of an army or be thrust from power altogether, he led his troops across the River Rubicon, which was the boundary of his province. But since no governor might lead armies except in his own province, this was as much as to declare war upon the Roman Government. So now, when people do something which binds them to go on, and makes any turning back impossible, they are said to have "crossed the Rubicon."

The flight of Pompey and his sad death, and Cæsar's great grief

Then Pompey found that his own warlike prowess was forgotten, whereas the deeds of Cæsar were fresh in men's minds; and the soldiers everywhere declared in Cæsar's favor, so that Pompey had to fly from Italy. But afterwards he gathered a great army in Greece, and to Greece at last came Cæsar to fight him. At the battle of Pharsalia, Pompey was overthrown and forced to fly from there to Egypt; but as he was landing a murderer stabbed him in the back, and the head was hewn from his dead body. But when Cæsar also came thither, and Pompey's head was brought to him, he shed tears, and put the murderer to death. For this was notable in Cæsar, that he was, like Scipio, of a merciful mind, ready to take into favor those who had fought against him.

What Cæsar did, and why they plotted to take his life

And having thus come to be the foremost man in all the world, Cæsar set himself to put the ruling of the great domains of Rome in order, and to make wise laws. But there were some who thought he would like to be crowned king, a thing hateful to all Romans; and some who wanted to get the power back into the hands of the Senate; and others who had private grudges against Cæsar, counting among their number not a few of the most powerful men in the state.

So they plotted to take Cæsar's life, and one day, as he stood near the statue of his dead rival, Pompey, they came to him, pretending to make a petition, and thereupon drew their swords and stabbed him to death, sending out through the city crying that Rome was freed from the tyrant. They forgot that, though Cæsar fell, either some other must take his place or the empire of Rome must be rent in pieces. For Cæsar had found and shown the only way, and his adopted son, Octavian, was destined to become the first of the Roman emperors, Cæsar Augustus. But the young Octavian was only eighteen, and none thought he would take the place of the great Julius.

How Mark Antony stirred up the people

But one Marcus Antonius, whom we commonly call Antony, who was a clever man and a friend of the murdered Cæsar, got leave by fair words to speak to the people, whom he stirred up to a great fury against those who had slain him. And after that none knew for a long time who would get the upper hand. But the young Cæsar made common cause with Antony, and presently those who had slain Cæsar and those who would avenge him were at war. Antony and Octavian overthrew the other party, of whom the most famous now is Marcus Brutus, by reason of the play of Julius Cæsar which Shakespeare wrote. This Marcus Brutus was one of those who had taken the side of Pompey in the war with Cæsar, and yet had been treated with great favor by Cæsar afterwards. But he

TWO FAMOUS SCENES IN THE ROMAN SENATE

CICERO DELIVERING HIS GREAT ORATION AGAINST CATALINE IN THE ROMAN SENATE

THE DEATH OF JULIUS CÆSAR IN THE SENATE-HOUSE IN ROME, STABBED BY HIS FRIENDS

Julius Cæsar became the foremost man in all the world. He set himself to rule the Roman Empire and to make wise laws. But there were some who thought he wanted to be crowned king, a thing hateful to all Romans, and for this ambition that Cæsar was supposed to have, although he thrice refused the crown, they killed him in the Senate-House at the foot of the statue of Pompey, his dead rival. But Cæsar's power was well founded, and his adopted son, Octavian, became the first of a long line of emperors.

was so full of the belief that the rule of one man in Rome must be bad for the state—perhaps because he remembered that the first Brutus was called great because he drove out the Tarquins—that he joined the conspiracy against his own friend. And it is said that when Cæsar saw him with his sword drawn he did not care to defend himself, but only said: "Thou too, Brutus?" and so fell, pierced by his friend's sword.

There was another famous Roman of those days whose name is known to everyone, the orator Cicero. He, too, was among those who took Pompey's side, but was afterwards treated by Cæsar with favor. It is said that the reason why the conspirators did not ask him to join them was, that they thought he would expect them to pay too much regard to his opinion, although they did not really think him a wise man.

CICERO THE ORATOR, ANTONY THE SOLDIER, OCTAVIAN THE EMPEROR

However, after the murder, Cicero made many famous speeches on their

side in opposition to Antony. Then Antony was so angry that Cicero was one of the people whom he specially named to be put to death; and when some of Antony's friends caught Cicero, they cut off his head and his hands and sent them to Antony. Besides being a great orator, so that his speeches are looked upon as models even now, Cicero wrote books which tell us more about those times than any other writings we have.

After the death of Cæsar it seemed at first that Octavian and Antony would divide the world between them; but then they also came to wars, since both wished to rule. And though Antony was the elder, and a practiced soldier, yet he was vanquished by Octavian; because he loved Cleopatra, the Queen of Egypt, and she loved him; and she persuaded him to remain in Egypt with her when he should have been making ready for his strife with Cæsar.

So, by land and sea, Antony was defeated, and when he saw that all hope of victory was gone he slew himself; and there was none left to stand between Octavian and the lordship of the Roman world that he had so long coveted.

THE EMPERORS OF ROME

FOR 400 years after the birth of Christ, Rome ruled almost all the known world, and a long line of emperors founded by Julius Cæsar, continued until the power of Rome passed away. Never before, or since, has the world known such remarkable rulers as the men we call the Cæsars. It was in the reign of the first Cæsar that Christ was born, and the Roman emperors lived through the most tremendous period of human history, when Christianity was slowly making its way among the people. It is strange that at that time the world was under the sway of the wickedest rulers who have ever lived; but it is fine to think that the beautiful influence of Christianity spread through the earth until it became stronger than the empire of the Cæsars, which fell to nothing, while Christianity took possession of the world. The son whom Julius Cæsar had adopted was sometimes called Cæsar and sometimes Octavian, because his real father's name was Octavius. After the slaying of the great Julius, there was long strife between the young Octavian and Mark Antony, since one or other might rule over the vast dominions of Rome, but not both.

And when at last Octavian got the better of Antony, who slew himself, a Cæsar was once more lord of the world, as we may say; for by this time the rule of Rome had spread over all the lands whose coasts are washed by the Mediterranean Sea; and kings far away in Asia, even if they did not call themselves subjects of Rome, still knew that they must obey her.

Now would this Cæsar face the mighty task of planning ways by which that great empire might be ruled so that order and justice should prevail, and of carrying out the plans; or would he, like many another, be satisfied to make all he could out of it for his own enjoyment and for the pleasing of his own whims and fancies?

He had been merciless, cruel, selfish. But now a change came. He took up the task; he set aside selfish aims; he learned to curb his fierce temper; and, with the aid of wise counselors, he laid the foundations of the Roman Empire so firmly that the evil rule of some of his successors, and civil wars,

Augustus, the first Emperor of Rome, gave peace and order to the Roman world. It was he who ordered a census to be taken, and it was while she was going up to Jerusalem for this counting of the people that Mary gave birth to Christ.

Tiberius succeeded Augustus, whose stepson he was. He was gloomy and morose, and made his life miserable by listening to tale-bearers until he dared trust no man, even in his own house; and he died, it may be, at the hands of those about his sick bed, who probably smothered him

and foreign foes, could not for centuries prevail to break it in pieces; and men lived under the Roman rule secure from violence, as they had lived under no other rule in the past.

Rome was a republic, and the people still hated the idea of a king; yet it was necessary that one man should be the real ruler. The difficulty was arranged by giving the one man a number of different offices and titles. Octavian was called Augustus, the name by which he is generally known, as a compliment, very much as we say "His Excellency, the President."

It was as if he had been made Speaker of the House, Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Admiral of the Navy all at once; so that he had in himself the authority of each of the chief offices of State given to him for life, though, of course, a great deal of the real work had to be done by others whom he appointed. Still, he could see that the work was properly done. But because the most necessary power of all was the control of the army, the title of Imperator, which has turned into the word Emperor, is the one which gradually became the most familiar.

So Augustus gave peace and order to the Roman world, and prosperity followed; and in his day Rome became a very splendid city, so that it was said of him that he found it built of brick, and left it built of marble. He showed favor to great poets, such as Virgil and Horace, and other great writers; so that in other countries the time when art and literature are supposed to have flourished most is called

Caligula succeeded Tiberius, whose great nephew he was. He became emperor when quite young, and after an illness he went mad. He lived a cruel life, and all Rome was glad when he was slain.

After Caligula's death, someone saw a man hidin behind a curtain, and the soldiers pulled him out and found that it was Claudius. They carried him off and made him emperor.

the Augustan Age. And there happened in his reign something of which he never heard, which yet changed the world more than all the statesmanship of Augustus; and that was the birth of Christ in a far-away province.

THE DEATH OF THE EMPEROR AUGUSTUS AND THE GLOOM OF TIBERIUS

For five-and-forty years Augustus ruled, and the Roman world was well accustomed to the new order of things before he died, old and weary; for all his greatness did not bring him happiness in his home. "Have I played my part well in the comedy?" he said, as he lay dying. "Then clap your hands, and so farewell."

No one then doubted that another emperor must succeed him, or that the successor must be his stepson, Tiberius.

Now Tiberius was not young; he was gloomy and morose. Yet he had served the state well, commanding great armies in distant lands where other generals had met with disasters. The old emperor had respected him, but no one loved him; and it is unlucky for him that the great Roman historian Tacitus has told the story of his reign in such a way that his name has become odious to all men. Yet some people say that this is not just, and that away from Rome people could see and feel that his government was firm and wise.

But in Rome itself, and, above all, among all those people who had to do with the emperor's court, his reign was grievous. For, knowing that men did not love him, Tiberius listened readily to tale-bearers, and there grew

up a foul brood of "informers" who were ready to lie away men's lives that they themselves might get rewards for their seeming loyalty. And the better a man was, the more likely was he to have wicked enemies who would charge him with plotting against the emperor; so that no man's life was safe.

THE UNHAPPY TIBERIUS AND HIS YOUNG NEPHEW GERMANICUS

With fair words crafty and evil men persuaded Tiberius to put his trust in them, and most of all a certain Sejanus, who became the captain of the guard. But a day came when certain proof was brought to Tiberius that Sejanus himself was plotting his murder, and Sejanus in one day was smitten down from his high estate and put to a shameful death. Yet after that Tiberius dare trust no man at all, and the victims of his fears multiplied, until he, too, died, it may be of disease, or it may be by the hands of those about his sick bed, who, as men believed, smothered him with pillows.

He had no son; but there had been a nephew of his who was called Germanicus for the fame he had won in the wars with the German barbarians. Germanicus died while quite a young man, and some fancied that he was poisoned by the emperor's device, since Tiberius feared any man who was a general favorite like Germanicus, and, above all, beloved by the soldiers.

THE MADNESS AND WICKEDNESS OF "LITTLE BOOTS," THE EMPEROR CALIGULA

However, Germanicus left a young son, whose name was Gaius; but he was called by the soldiers Caligula, which means "little boots," because when he was a tiny boy in his father's camp he used to wear little boots like those the soldiers wore. Now Caligula, being almost a boy, was made emperor for the sake of the memory of his father, Germanicus.

But very soon after he had a serious illness, and after his illness he became quite mad, though he was still bright, so that people did not see at first that he was really mad. In his madness he thought that he was a god, and, moreover, he had a horrible delight in killing people, among many other wild fancies; so that one day he said he wished all the people in Rome had only one neck between them, so that he might cut off all their heads at once. Thus it seemed that in a few months Caligula would shed more innocent blood than ever Tiberius had spilled in his long reign, and therefore certain officers, fearing for their own lives, banded together and slew him.

Since this deed was done without warning, none knew who should now be made emperor, or whether there would be a new emperor; and it seemed that for a time all law and order were over; but the soldiers of the guard resolved to show their own power, and began to pillage the palace.

HOW THE TREMBLING CLAUDIUS HID BEHIND A CURTAIN IN THE PALACE

While they were pillaging, one saw the feet of a man who was hiding behind a curtain. The soldiers pulled him out, and when they saw that it was one Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, but a feeble man and of no account, they cried out, mocking, that he should be the new emperor, and carried him off to the camp. And since none could command the guard, Claudius was proclaimed emperor.

Now he was not bloodthirsty like Caligula, loving rather books and learning of a kind that active men often despise; but Rome was ruled by his servants, and by his evil wife, Messalina. She was so wicked that

when Claudius found out her wickedness he put her to death; yet he married another wife, Agrippina, the sister of Caligula, who was no less wicked, and she ruled in place of Messalina. So that all through his reign Claudius, without meaning to do evil, was persuaded by his bad counselors to shed nearly as much innocent blood as those who had gone before him. At last, however, his wife, Agrippina, poisoned him, that she might make her son, Nero, emperor in his place, for she had been married and had a son before she became the wife of Claudius.

There was no one whom the soldiers cared to make emperor except Nero, so it was he who followed Claudius; and at first, while he was quite young, he allowed his tutor, the wise Seneca, and the grave Burrhus, the captain of the guard, to rule well enough; while he spent his own time in studying art and music till he came to fancy himself a wonderful artist and musician. But presently he was not contented with that, and showed himself the most cruel and bloodthirsty of all the emperors, so that his name is a by-word to this day.

First of all he had his own mother murdered, but that vile crime was forgiven him because she had been so evil a woman. There was a great fire which burned down half the city of Rome, and men said that this was his own doing, and that while the flames raged he sang and played upon his harp the song of the burning of Troy. But, fearing the rage of the people, he pretended that it was the Christians who had done this thing, and many of them were hunted out and burned to death or flung to the lions in the amphitheatre to amuse the populace.

So many such deeds he wrought, so many noble men and women were his victims, that they cannot be recounted; but at last news came that a general named Galba, in Spain, had revolted. And when men knew that someone had ventured to rise up against him, there were none who would stand by the cruel tyrant; the guards themselves deserted the emperor. In terror he fled; but when he knew that his hiding-place was found, he dared rather to die by his own hand than to fall into the hands of his foes—pitied by none save himself. His last thought and his last words were that the world was losing a wonderful artist.

Now in quick succession three men claimed the empire. First the old soldier Galba, with his legions from Spain; then a young man named Otho, chosen by the guard at Rome, who overthrew Galba; then the glutton Vitellius, chosen by the armies in Germany, whose troops overthrew Otho. But then there came one stronger than any of these, the skilled general Vespasian, who commanded the Roman armies in the East.

Vespasian and the two sons who ruled after him are called the Flavian emperors, because the family name was Flavius. Vespasian was of no high birth; but he gave Rome what she most needed at the time—a chief who meant to restore order and good government, who had no thirst for blood, and did not care to waste on display and luxury the money that was needed for more useful things. So when once he had crushed resistance to his rule, there was no more violence and bloodshed.

After him his son Titus reigned only for a short time. He had won fame before as a soldier, during his father's rule, by the great siege of Jerusalem, which had rebelled; and when he conquered it he dealt with it very mercilessly, laying it in ruins, and

carrying away the treasures of the Temple to Rome. But when he became emperor he was resolved to win fame for kindness and mercy, so that when a day passed on which he had set no wrong right and relieved no distress, he said to those about him, "My friends, I have lost a day." This was so unlike what people had expected of him that some think that if he had not died young he would again have shown the cruelty of his earlier life.

That is what his brother Domitian, who succeeded him, did. He began his reign well enough, but presently turned to evil ways after the manner of Tiberius, persecuting the Christians among his other ill-deeds. Thus it was that when Domitian, in his turn, was murdered, there was none to mourn for him.

For more than a hundred years after Vespasian made himself emperor, Domitian was the only one of all the emperors who was not counted among the good princes; and the five who came next after Domitian are often called the "five good emperors." The first, indeed, whose name was Nerva, hardly counts. He was an old man already when the Senate offered him the throne—the soldiers made no disturbance—and his rule was very short. But just as Julius Cæsar adopted the young Octavian as his son, so Nerva adopted as his son a great soldier, Trajan, who was trusted by the army; and thus it was made certain that Trajan would be emperor after him. Trajan was one of the very best men for the throne; moreover, he was a great warrior, more at home in the camp than in the court, and waged successful wars with the barbarian tribes in Dacia beyond the River Danube. However, Trajan made choice of a wise and able general and statesman to succeed him as emperor. No one opposed the accession of Hadrian, who, at the time, was in command of the army in the East. But he had already seen the mistake Trajan was making at the end of his reign in enlarging the empire, so the first thing he did was to make peace with the border nations, fixing the bounds of the empire where they had been before, though he took care to let everyone see that his armies were going to be just as strong as before. Then he went back to Italy and devoted himself to making the good arrangements for government which Trajan had made still better.

HADRIAN, WHO TRAVELED THROUGHOUT THE EMPIRE AND WENT TO ENGLAND

But the most remarkable thing he did was that, although traveling was no easy matter in those days, when men had to go from place to place either on foot or on horseback, he traveled over the Roman Empire, and saw with his own eyes how each part of it was governed; and he even went to Britain, and built there a famous rampart between England and Scotland, which is called Hadrian's Wall to this day.

Though Hadrian made the task of ruling easier for his successors, yet the task could never be a light one; and it was well that the two who followed him were both wise and resolute. The first was Titus Aurelius Antoninus, surnamed Pius for his virtue, whom Hadrian had chosen. In his reign the Roman governor ruled over a part of Scotland as well as England, and a new rampart was raised across Scotland which is called the Wall of Antonine. He adopted as a son, to help him and afterwards to succeed him, the famous Marcus Aurelius.

MARCUS AURELIUS, THE EMPEROR WHO WROTE A BOOK THAT WE CAN BUY TODAY

These two great Antonines are reckoned for all time as the type of

noble princes, since their care was altogether for the people over whom they ruled, and not at all for themselves. This is true, although Marcus Aurelius dealt hardly with the Christians and persecuted them, because it seemed to him, having no knowledge of the truth of their doctrine, that they were teaching men to defy the law and to be impious. Yet he wrote a book of "Meditations," which people treasure even now, being so full of wise thoughts and noble counsel, although he knew nothing of the hopes of the Christian faith.

It is strange, too, to think that he wrote much of this book while he was in camp at the head of armies in wild regions, whose fierce border tribes were again rising up to do battle against the might of Rome; for though Marcus Aurelius loved peace, he showed himself a skilled leader in war. And when he died all men mourned for him. Yet he, too, made one unhappy blunder, for he named to succeed him his son Commodus, who was almost as bad as his father was good.

THE TYRANT DIOCLETIAN, WHO TRIED TO DESTROY CHRISTIANITY

Now during the next hundred years there were a great many emperors, some of whom reigned for no more than a few months or even weeks. Only two or three reigned for so long as ten years. For whenever an emperor died—and a good many were murdered—two or three generals were usually proclaimed emperor by the troops in that part of the empire where they were in command. But at the end of a century a soldier named Diocles, who changed his name to Diocletian, succeeded in making himself emperor, and from his time there was no more pretense that the government of Rome was really a republic in which a man happened to hold a number of important offices all at once, but it might almost be said that the emperor's will was law. Now, Diocletian is also famous for this—that he was the last of the emperors who tried hard to destroy Christianity, because by this time the Christian community had become large and powerful enough to sway the minds of men; so that the persecution under Diocletian was the worst the Christians ever endured.

Now when Diocletian thought that his work for Rome was completed he resigned his power; but he had not taken steps to make sure that his successor would be fitted to rule. And so there was strife again between the great governors of the four quarters of the empire, each fearing that unless he made himself chief of all he would lose his own rulership. And in this strife the victor was he whom we call Constantine the Great; and the battle in which he overthrew his chief rival is called the battle of the Milvian Bridge, and this was also the victory of Christianity. For Constantine had already shown goodwill to the Christians; and before the battle, as he related himself, he thought he saw a vision—the vision of the Cross, and over the Cross words which mean: "Under this standard thou shalt be victorious." From that day he took the Cross for his standard; and, having become emperor, he made Christianity the State religion of the Roman Empire, so that the State was no longer hostile to the Christian Church. Constantine also made the city of Byzantium the chief city of the empire in place of Rome, and gave it the name of Constantinople.

ARTISTS WHO BEAUTIFIED ROME

IN ALL the world there is no other place so wonderful and yet so sad as Rome. It is wonderful beyond all other cities because of the relics of past power and grandeur which it preserves. The sight of its ruined splendor makes us think of that story of the finding of ancient Babylon, the mighty city of which the Bible tells us so much, and which was the greatest in the world when Rome was not yet built.

But Babylon perished, and for thousands of years lay buried under the sand and soil swept over it by the winds. And one day a man of our own time discovered the vast mounds of rubbish under which it lies. It was deserted, save for a few savage tribesmen who pitched their dirty tents there, and pastured their lean flocks.

Rome has not fallen into decay like Babylon, for it is still a populous city. Its population is, however, only about a third of the population of the Rome of two thousand years ago, and the people who now live in Rome do not add to the glory or interest of the city. They depend for their living very largely upon people who visit Rome from other countries. Most of them are poor, not over-clean, and not well educated, although, of course, there are many who are both cultured and wealthy. Somehow we cannot but feel that these people ought not to be there. We want to picture Rome as peopled with the great men and women of olden times who made it the most famous city in the whole world, the home of the people who ruled over all the earth that was known in their day.

Wonderful as she still is, Rome lives, and must live, upon her past—a past such as no other city possesses. The pages of history teach us how Rome came to be the greatest power in the world. We learn there, also, that the power of the emperors declined, and that the power of the Church increased, so that the Church became ruler of Rome. This great city, where, in the early centuries, Christians suffered such frightful tortures, became the capital of Christianity.

Rome was attacked, as her strength declined, by strong and barbarous people. The popes managed to impress the Christian faith upon the conquerors, and were themselves

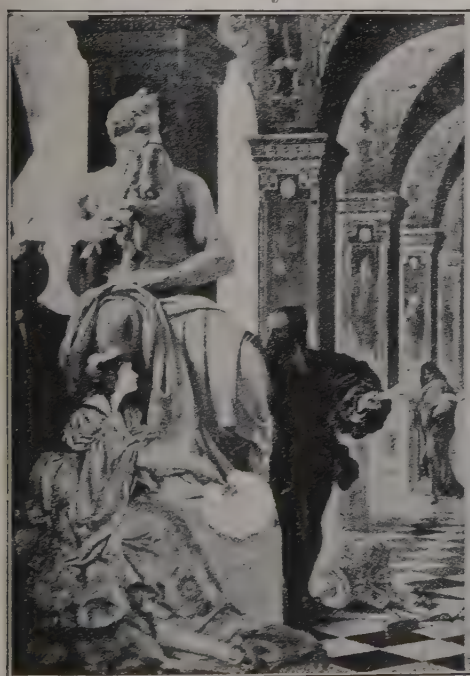
strengthened by these dreaded masters of Rome. In course of time the popes ceased to be merely the heads of the Church. They became rulers; they helped to settle the affairs of practically all nations which professed Christianity. It is important to remember this, for only by so doing can we understand how Rome owes her second life to the popes.

THE MAGNIFICENCE OF ROME UNDER HER OLD PAGAN RULERS

Rome reached her greatest grandeur under pagan rulers. They had temples and theaters and circuses such as the world has never seen since; they had huge and wonderful temples to all their gods and goddesses; they had lordly palaces and villas to dwell in; they had places of entertainment in which 250,000 people could be seated to witness the chariot races. Their noblest statuary was erected by the sculptors of antiquity, to glorify conquerors or to celebrate the gods whom the people worshipped. Never was there so splendid a city, before or since, as Rome in the height of her power under the pagan consuls and emperors.

Naturally, then, when the popes, who were the heads of the Christian Church, became rulers of Rome, they were anxious that Christian Rome should celebrate her faith as generously as pagan Rome had. And pope after pope commanded the greatest artists in the world, sculptors and painters, to convert heathen temples into Christian churches, to build new churches, and to make the city beautiful in the eyes of those who worshipped God.

Much of the old Rome remained, and still remains, for her barbarian conquerors could not overthrow and



Michaelangelo was wonderfully influenced by a pious lady named Vittoria Colonna. She was the chief inspirer of his poetry and pictures. Her death, in 1547, left the artist broken in health and spirits. Here we see the lady and the artist at the foot of his great statue of Moses.

In this picture the famous artist Raphael, of whom it has been said that he would have been a great painter even if he had come into the world without hands, is talking to La Fornarina, a lady with whom he fell in love, and to whom he wrote some beautiful sonnets.

carry away all the vast monuments to bygone greatness; and it is these relics of those wonderful ages which make Rome today such a sad, yet fascinating, spectacle.

THE ARTISTIC GLORIES OF ROME THAT ARE UNMATCHED IN THE WHOLE WORLD

But for the beauty lavished upon her in Christian days we must go into the churches, into the galleries, and into the Vatican. There we can see wonders of art that are unmatched in the whole world. It would be hopeless to attempt anything more than a sketch of a few of the men who have made the beauties of Christian Rome. Books upon books have been written on the subject, and many more might be written without wearing out the theme.

It will serve as an introduction for us merely to glance at some of these men whom the re-awakening of art in Europe gave to Rome for her adorning. How to give each man his due is the difficulty. The vast Vatican palace, one of the chief glories of later Rome, took hundreds of years to build. If we could tell its story, and the story of the men who worked to bring it to completion, we should tell the history of the politics and art of Europe during all that time.

It stands where the ancient Romans used to gather to worship an old oak, where, later, the dreadful Caligula built a huge circus; and hereabouts this villain would delight himself at night by walking forth and slaughtering distinguished people—senators and Roman ladies whom he met on his way.

THE POPE WHO DREAMED OF THE GREATEST PALACE IN THE WORLD

Here, too, Nero afterwards had his circus, in which he nailed Christians to crosses, disguised some as wild beasts and had them worried to death by dogs, and covered others with pitch and set fire to them, so that they might make living torches to light up his night's amusement in the circus.

These days passed, and the Vatican became the residence of the popes towards the end of the fifth century, though during the whole of the Middle Ages the papal residence was at the Lateran. In 1309 Innocent III began to rebuild the Vatican as the settled home of the popes. He was the powerful pope who tried to take England away from King John, and made the latter own himself the servant of the pope.

The work at the Vatican went on from pope's reign to pope's reign, until the ambitious thought entered the mind of Nicholas V to make the Vatican the greatest and most magnificent palace in the world. He did not live to see his scheme completed, but his successors carried it on. Today the Vatican is the greatest and most splendid palace in the world, and contains the richest treasures of art and literature ever gathered together in one center. It covers an area of thirteen and one-half acres, of which about six are occupied by the twenty courts, 200 staircases, and about 1000 chapels, rooms and galleries that go to make up this vast building.

The popes who built the Vatican will always be remembered as among the men who helped to make Rome beautiful, and we may here note the names of some of them. First there was the powerful Innocent III, who began the rebuilding; followed by Nicholas III, who began the scheme of enlargement. John XXIII added to the security of the palace by connecting it by a passage with the fortress of St. Angelo.

Nicholas V, the pope with the master-builder's mind, planned the scheme for making the Vatican what it

has since become—the home of the pope and the cardinals, the offices of the Church, the meeting-place of all her pilgrims, the starting-place of all her missioners. The work which began under this pope was carried on by Alexander VI and Paul II made further extensions, and then Sixtus IV built the world-famous Sistine Chapel, so-called after his name.

THE CHURCH OF ST. PETER THAT COST MORE THAN FIFTY MILLION DOLLARS

It is necessary now to turn to the building of the huge church of St. Peter, Rome's greatest sanctuary, the church dearest to Roman Catholics, as the Vatican is the palace most revered by them. The building of the church was begun in 1506 by Julius II, and extended over 176 years. The cost of the main building alone was fifty million dollars. So hard was the struggle to get money that two of the popes were driven to methods which roused the indignation of Martin Luther and others, and led to the Reformation.

St. Peter's at Rome, built to be the greatest church of the Christian world, led to the first great division in Western Christendom, and brought into being the Protestant Church. Now that it is finished, St. Peter's is a building unmatched in splendor for its marbles and statuary and paintings, and for the richness of its decoration in jewels and precious metals.

But Rome, as a city, suffered by the building of this mighty cathedral. Nearly all the marble with which the interior is decked was taken, not from modern quarries, but from ancient buildings, many of which were leveled to the ground for the sake of only one or two pieces. However, be its history what it may, Rome has the richest and most remarkable church in history, the church which cost most and took longest to build. It also costs more to maintain than any other church.

THE GREAT TREASURES DESTROYED TO MAKE ROOM FOR ST. PETER'S

The present cathedral occupies the place of an earlier one. The older church was rich beyond comparison in works of art, which had taken long to gather together, but when the first building perished these were destroyed, either deliberately or through carelessness. This is a crime for which lovers of the beautiful cannot forgive Pope Julius II, who directed the destruction of the old church to make way for the new.

The Vatican and the great cathedral and the hundreds of churches and the richly stored museums and galleries are the works which have been carried out under the popes and the men who have lived in the times during which the popes have been masters of the Eternal City.

Now we may turn to the story of some of the artists who have worked for the glorification of the city.

Fra Angelico made the world grateful to him, not alone for the sermons which he preached with his brush; he inspired men with his own ardor and made them great painters too.

FABRIANO, THE HAPPY ARTIST WHOSE PICTURES ARE FULL OF JOY

One of these was the warm-hearted Gentile de Fabriano, who was born about the year 1348, at Fabriano, the town from which he took his name. He was nearly forty years older than the painter-friar. Nevertheless, it was from this holy man that Fabriano learned, though he may first have studied under Allegretto de Nuzio.

Some of his finest work was done for Florence and for Venice, the latter city giving him a pension and a title of nobility. Fabriano was well advanced in years when his fame reached Rome, and caused Pope Martin V to

summon him thither to help in adorning the fine church of St. John Lateran. His pictures express the joyfulness of spirit by which he was always animated. He had something of the happy childish spirit which lives in the delightful pictures of the saintly Fra Angelico.

Among the famous artists of Florence of the early fifteenth century was Fra Filippo Lippi, who, born about 1406, lived all his life in Florence. His son, Filippino Lippi, who was born about 1458 and died in 1504, was only a child when his father died, but the genius of the sire descended upon the son, and the fame of the Lippi family was carried by Filippino to Rome, where to this day some of the glories of his art are to be found in the frescoes which he painted in the Minerva church to illustrate scenes in the life of St. Thomas Aquinas.

THE MASTERPIECE OF BOTTICELLI THAT WAS HIDDEN AWAY

But a greater artist than Filippino studied in the school of Fra Lippi. This was Sandro Botticelli, born at Florence in 1446. He was to have been a goldsmith, and was apprenticed to one named Botticelli, and took that name, for his own surname was Filipepi. Happily, he was passed on to Lippi, and then he caught the spirit of his master, and improved upon it. In his youth he loved the myths and legends of classical stories, and painted his ideas of them upon immortal canvases. Such was his "Birth of Venus" and "Venus with the Graces." But religious art presently called him, and two of his devotional pictures are among the greatest artistic glories of Florence today.

The manner in which he painted did not always please the critics, for one of his pictures was declared to be heretical and had to be hidden away. Nevertheless, he was called to Rome, and gave the best of his life to painting three glorious frescoes in the Sistine Chapel at the Vatican. He found time to illustrate the great work of Dante with engravings of exceeding beauty. Large as were the sums he earned, his declining years were passed in poverty, relieved only by a pension from the Medici family. To make matters worse, he was stricken with lameness and blindness, and he was quite unable to follow the art that he loved so much.

We now approach the company of giants, a period of marvelous artists, sculptors, and painters. First let us take Donato Bramante, who was born near Urbino in 1444, and died at Rome in 1514. He was at school in Milan, where he studied geometry and perspective, sciences which in those days were not at all well understood by even the great artists. Bramante, therefore, is of much importance to us in history for the pains that he took to spread the study of these sciences, for by so doing, as we can all easily understand, he introduced greater exactness and truth into his work.

BRAMANTE, WHO LAID THE FOUNDATIONS OF ST. PETER'S

Bramante was one of the best painters of his day, but he laid aside his brush for the pencil and compasses of the architect. Invited to Rome by Pope Alexander VI, and working on under Julius II, he first built great galleries for the Vatican, and then designed and laid the foundations of St. Peter's. He meant to make the cathedral in the form of a Greek cross with a noble dome to it, but the work had been only eight years in progress when he died.

At this time three of the greatest geniuses of the world were reaching the heigt of their glory. One was Leonardo da Vinci, who had but little to do

with Rome; but he was one of the three greatest figures there for a short time of his life.

MICHAELANGELO, THE GREATEST ARTIST IN AN AGE OF GREAT ARTISTS

A younger man than Leonardo was Michaelangelo—younger by twenty-three years, but who was eight years older than Raphael. With these three men for rivals, we may rightly say that this was an age of giants. Michaelangelo and Leonardo were rivals for a work at Florence, resulting in each producing a world's masterpiece; and they were rivals again at Rome.

It is strange that the same age should produce two such men as Leonardo and Michaelangelo, for in many respects they were alike. They towered above nearly all their fellows in several of the arts. Michaelangelo was one of the finest sculptors that ever lived; he was one of the greatest painters; yet he was also so eminent a poet that his verses placed him in the very forefront of poets of a particular type.

WHEN OLD MICHAELANGELO LOOKED BACK UPON HIS WORK AS A BOY

Michaelangelo was born at Caprese, Italy, March 6, 1475, and died at Rome, February 18, 1564. His father, a man of good family, thought it degrading for his son to follow the profession of a painter; but the boy's whole affections were given to art, so he was apprenticed to a painter, when he so soon became expert that at fourteen he was able to correct the work of his master. Long, long afterwards, when Michaelangelo was an old man, they showed him some of the paintings which he had done when a little boy. "Ah," he said, "I was a better artist then than I am now."

His life, though so distinguished, was full of vexations. While he was yet young, a jealous fellow-apprentice, in a quarrel, picked up a mallet and struck him with such force as to crush his nose, and disfigure him for life. By the time that he was thirty-five the fame of Michaelangelo had spread throughout Italy, and he was called to Rome to undertake the gigantic tomb, or mausoleum, in which the then reigning pope, Julius II, intended to be buried. This vast work engaged him on and off for practically the remainder of his life.

He had been only two years on this work when the pope bade him undertake the decoration of the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel. Here was a task for one man! The ceiling is vaulted, 150 feet long and 50 feet broad. Unaided, Michaelangelo carried out the work in little more than four years. No single work in modern art can compare with this.

A CEILING WHICH IS ONE OF THE WONDERS OF THE WORLD

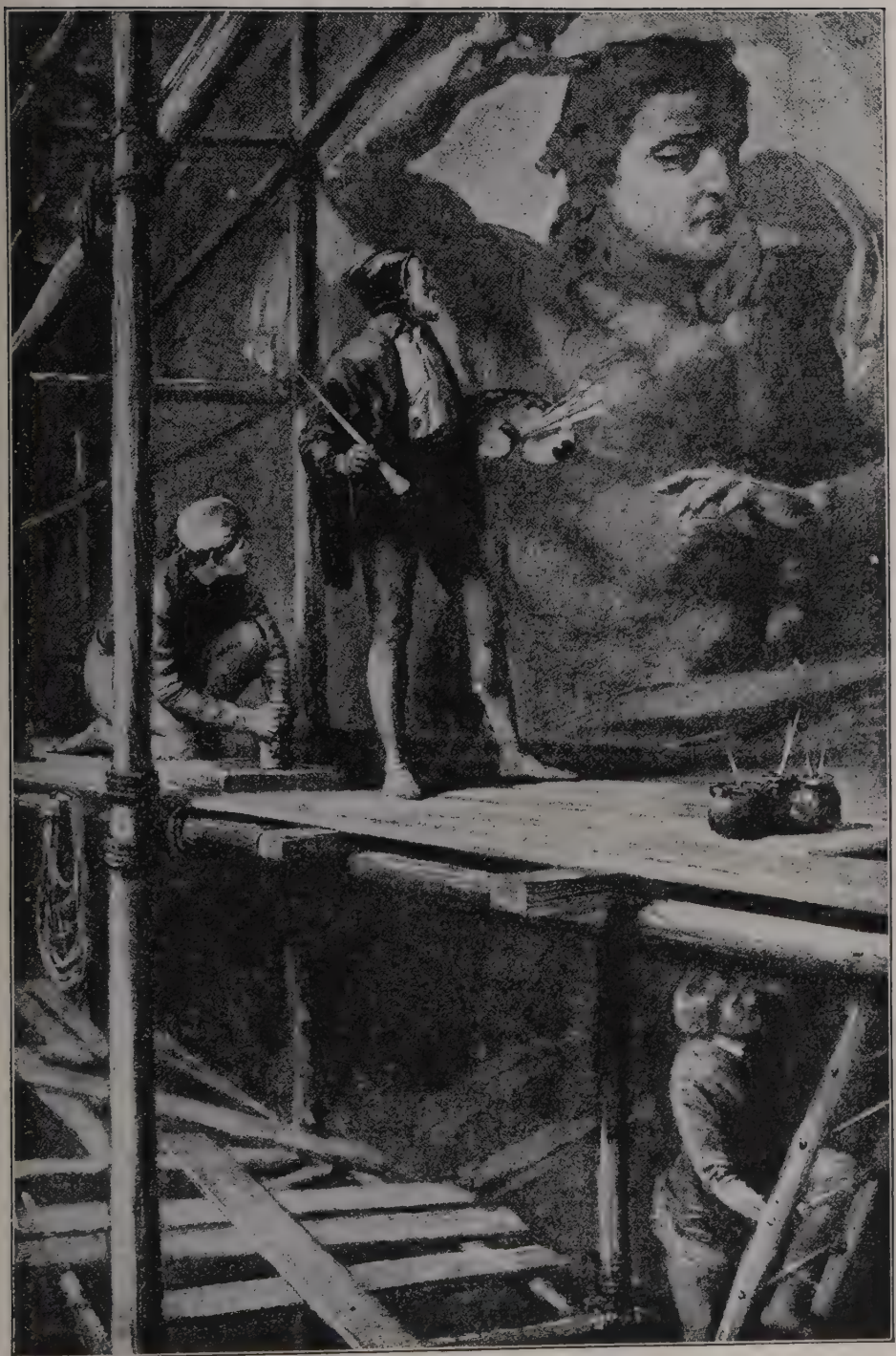
Some of the figures on the ceiling are grand and terrible, others are exquisitely soft and beautiful, and the whole is full of deep feeling, like some great poem in figure and action. This tremendous work has been the wonder of the artistic world ever since it was finished.

While he was at work on it, Michaelangelo gave every thought to it. He would have no help, he would have no onlookers. The chapel was closed, and he hated to see even the pope himself there. One day the pope did creep in on tiptoe to see how the work was progressing. The painter saw him, and angrily let fall some tools with a crash near where the pope was standing. The pope fled, but was so angry that Michaelangelo had to leave Rome until the storm blew over.

It must have been about this time that he carved one of his famous statues for Florence. For years there had stood in a backyard in Florence a great misshapen block of marble

MICHAELANGELO'S FAMOUS CEILING IN THE VATICAN

The magnificent ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, painted by Michaelangelo, is one of the greatest glories of Rome. This picture of it gives some idea of the grandeur of the decoration, which cannot be really suggested on paper.



None but Michaelangelo could have conceived and painted the great picture of the Last Judgment that stands out instinct with power and majesty on the wall of the Sistine Chapel. It never ceases to astonish men.

which another sculptor, long before, had spoiled in trying to shape from it the figure of a giant. Michaelangelo was asked if he could carve a figure from it. He said that he could, and the magic of his chisel won from the huge block the great statue of David, with which the world is now familiar. Another famous work is his fine statue of Moses.

How Raphael was inspired by the work of Michaelangelo

Still he was not at liberty to go on with his work at Rome, for a war occurred in which Florence was besieged, and Michaelangelo was set to work to fortify the city against the enemy. When he at last settled down in Rome again, he resumed the work on the tomb of Pope Julius. He was eventually made architect for St. Peter's Cathedral, and designed the great dome.

He never married, but he loved a beautiful marchioness, and it was his love for her which inspired some of the most beautiful of his poems. He died when nearly eighty-nine years of age. To the last, though he was proud and reserved in his dealings with other men, he was always a humble student of his art. "I am still learning," this great man used to say right up to the time of his death.

One of the effects of Michaelangelo's work was to inspire Raphael. The latter, born at Urbino, in 1483, was only twenty-five when, famous for his work at Perugia and Florence, he was invited by Julius II to Rome. He had already come under the influence of Michaelangelo and Leonardo, but apparently it was not until Michaelangelo's frescoes in the Sistine Chapel were unveiled that he felt the full effects of the master's genius. It carried a message and an inspiration to him that bore wonderful fruit. Not that he copied Michaelangelo. He was too great to be a copyist. He was the greatest painter that ever lived, and did not need to copy.

But we may be inspired by others less expert than ourselves, and though Raphael was a greater painter than Michaelangelo, it was owing to the influence of the latter that there burst forth that light which was to illumine the remaining days of the young man.

The pope made him master architect of St. Peter's, the post to which, at Raphael's death, Michaelangelo succeeded. He was also the foremost painter in rank as well as in achievement. He painted the famous frescoes at the Vatican, glorious pictures from Scripture, pictures for the tapestries in the cathedral at Arras, now world-famous, portraits, studies, sketches, and so on. No man ever produced more. He seemed to feel that he was not to live long, and that he must devote every hour to his work. It was well for mankind that he did, for he died when only thirty-seven years of age.

A good man who worked hard and a bad man who made beautiful things

In his all too short life he gave to Rome, and through Rome to the world, the most marvelous collections of paintings ever done by human hand. He was mourned not only as a great artist, but as a greatly beloved man. Everybody admired him, and so gentle and sweet was his nature that it was said that the very animals loved him.

Quite a different type of man from the men already mentioned was Benvenuto Cellini, the goldsmith and sculptor, who won such fame from his work in Rome during the time of Clement VII and Paul III. He was born in Florence in 1500, and died there in 1571.

His work was very beautiful, and on this account he was forgiven many

Michaelangelo Vittoria Colonna Pope Julius Raphael

POPE JULIUS II AND HIS CONTEMPORARIES VIEWING THE STATUE OF APOLLO

crimes for which others would have been executed. He lived in rough, lawless days, but Cellini was worse than the average lawless man of his day, and thought nothing of slaying anyone with whom he quarreled. He wrote the story of his life, and it is considered to be one of the most remarkable works of its kind in the whole of the world's literature.

While Cellini was swinging his sword and plying his tools, his very opposite in character, Sebastian del Piombo, was quietly at work with his paintings and portraits. He was a native of Venice, it is supposed, and was born in 1485. A friend of Michaelangelo, it is believed that he had that great man's help in painting his "Resurrection of Lazarus," which now hangs in the National Gallery in London. He was a good, pious man, as well as a distinguished artist, and towards the close of his life became a priest.

CLAUDE LORRAINE, THE GREAT PAINTER WHO COULD NOT BE A BAKER

Now we go forward to the seventeenth century, and in its first year we come upon a baby named Claude Gellée, who, being born at Champagne, in Lorraine, is known to the world as Claude Lorraine. His father was an humble pastrycook, and as Claude grew up he wished to make him a pastrycook too. But the boy could not be made to learn. "He will never know how to heat an oven or bake pastry," his father grumbled.

Claude's brother was a stonemason, and thought the little chap would never be clever enough to follow that trade. "He's so silly that you had better make a priest of him, father," he said.

But study of the ordinary sort was beyond Claude. He would go into the fields and gaze with wonder and delight on all he saw from dawn to dusk, but he could not mind a baker's oven nor use a mason's chisel. He suffered terribly at home, so one day, meeting a party of Flemish artists who were going to Rome to study, he decided to join them, and was allowed to act as their servant.

HOW CLAUDE LORRAINE WAITED FOR HIS OPPORTUNITY

Arrived in Rome, he entered the service of an artist, grinding his colors and making himself generally useful. He was not lazy, as his father had thought; here in the atmosphere of a studio, with all he loved, no day was too long for him, for he was now able to study art. After some years of this life, he wandered forth on his travels, studying wherever he went. Returning again to Rome when twenty-seven he started his career as a landscape artist.

Progress was slow but sure, and at the end of ten years he was commissioned to paint a picture for Cardinal Bentivoglio, who introduced him to Pope Urban VIII, and this made his fortune. All good patrons of art were now anxious to have his works, but he would not readily part with them.

For one picture the pope offered him as much gold as would cover the canvas on which the picture was painted, but Lorraine would not sell it. Illness marred his later years, but to the end Lorraine was diligent and faithful to his art. He died in 1682.

SALVATOR ROSA, THE MERRY MAN WHO PAINTED SAD PICTURES

Another famous landscape painter of this time was Salvator Rosa, who was born at Arenella, near Naples, in 1615, and died in Rome in 1673. He received very little instruction, but wandered about studying Nature in her wildest moods and aspects, and painted pictures strong and gloomy and original. That the pictures should be gloomy is strange, seeing that his nature was so mirthful. He was a

brilliantly talented man, whose verses made fun of the great people of the time without fear or favor.

A painting called "Tityus Tortured by the Vulture" made Rosa famous at twenty-three, and he became the center of a group of distinguished friends. But his verses got him into trouble, and he had to flee to Florence on pain of death.

THE BOY CANOVA, WHO MODELED A LION IN BUTTER

Another artist who helped to maintain the artistic fame of Rome was Antonio Canova, the father of a new school of sculpture. He was born at Possagno, in Venetian territory, on November 1, 1757, and died in Venice on October 13, 1822. His father died when Antonio was only three years old, and the child was left to the care of his grandparents. A grand old man was his grandfather, who delighted to teach the child to model, and to indulge his fancy in the little workshop where the old man toiled as a stonecutter. At nine years of age, Canova, in order to better his education, was placed in the household of a nobleman, where he soon distinguished himself. There was to be a banquet at the house, but one of the chief ornaments of the table, a great fancy dish, failed to arrive. The host was in despair, but little Canova beautifully modeled a lion in butter, with which everyone was delighted. His master was so pleased that he sent the boy to receive lessons in sculpture. Soon, however, the lad was left to look after himself.

In the morning he studied in the academy or galleries. In the afternoon he worked for a sculptor. In the evening he read. Then he set up a little workshop in a cell under a monastery, and for four years he toiled and studied. At last he produced his first statue, and it set all the great art critics wondering. The Venetian senate sent him to Rome to study when he was twenty-three years of age.

Canova had carefully studied all the ancient classical statuary that he had seen, and he tried, while true to the best old traditions, to give his own work something of the charm of his own mind. It was a new and daring style, and in Rome everybody scorned it.

WHAT CANOVA SAID ONE DAY AT THE BRITISH MUSEUM

But Canova was quite undaunted. For twenty years he worked away in extreme poverty at his ideal, and he conquered, in spite of all jealousy, contempt, and rivalry. His work became one of the glories of Italy.

It was to him that Englishmen turned when the critics condemned the Elgin Marbles at the British Museum. Canova came to London to see them, and declared them to be among the finest examples of Grecian art in the world. And as he looked upon these masterpieces of ancient days, the great sculptor said, in his modesty, that after seeing these, he felt that his own work had been a failure.

Happily, the world does not agree. The world accords to Canova a high place in the assemblage of great geniuses who have helped to keep Rome in her place as the queen of all the cities—a glorious queen for what she was in the days long past, and supreme in beauty and wonder from what more modern effort has made her.

A FEAST AT TITIAN'S HOUSE IN VENICE

VENICE, SHOWING THE DOGE'S PALACE AND THE FAMOUS BELL-TOWER, WHICH FELL IN 1902, AFTER STANDING 800 YEARS

THE MAKERS OF VENICE

VENICE, the Queen of the Adriatic, is old, but age does not disfigure her. Our admiration and love for her increases as she grows older. She is very beautiful in her old age, and very pathetic. All her glories belong to the past. Venice is slowly decaying. She stands like some beautiful vision upon the sands of the seashore, and men, as they see her image reflected in the gleaming waters of the lagoon, wonder if it be not some fairy fancy that they picture. Cities such as Venice seem to belong more to dreams and poetic visions than to this world of ours. Before asking who made Venice, we must for a moment recall the means by which this strange city came into existence.

Many hundreds of years ago, when barbarians overthrew the might of Rome, a small number of Roman descendants were driven before the conquering Goths and Lombards down to the coast of the Adriatic Sea. They hid in swamps and in the little islands formed near the coast. Many years passed, and the handful of people who had fled in terror from the Goths became noted as bold fishermen and sailors.

Each island was controlled by its own tribune, appointed by the people of the island, and each island was quite independent of the others. After two centuries, however, the people appointed one man a duke, or doge, to rule over them all, and they became rich and powerful. No longer did they fear attack from the mainland. They constructed bridges to join the islands together, and canals were made along the channels where the water had previously flowed unchecked. They built a powerful fleet, and this fleet they sent, in 827 to Alexandria, where it is said to have recovered and carried back to Venice the body of St. Mark. In honor of this saint the great Cathedral of St. Mark was built.

Venice became a crowded, wealthy, and important city. She sent out her soldiers and her ships with the Crusaders. She built up a great trade. She bought from the East and sold to the West. She bought from the West and sold to the East, and her own manufactures became famous. She made conquests on the mainland, and she captured islands at sea.

Venice became one of the richest cities in the world. Her decline set

in when America was discovered, and when the new route to India was found, as told in the story of Vasco da Gama. After varying fortunes in war she eventually lost her independence, and is now a part of the kingdom of Italy. While her citizens were so prosperous they had ample means for making their city beautiful. Her richest residents could not build great

How Venice Rose from the Sea

They had very little space on which to build, for the city is made up of very many little islands, with the famous Grand Canal running like a capital S between them, and with over a hundred smaller canals, all bridged at frequent intervals. Therefore, as they could not have a city vast in size, they made one unequaled in beauty.

THE GRAND CANAL DURING A FETE

This is the main artery of traffic in Venice. It is nearly two miles long, and varies from 100 to 200 feet in width. It is adorned with about two hundred magnificent old patrician palaces.

military castles, such as our barons and the barons of Germany built. There would not have been room for them in Venice. So they built gorgeous palaces of marble. The Republic, as a body, could not build huge forts, for there was neither need for them nor space on which to erect them. So they devoted their money to erect the most splendid halls, council chambers, palaces for their rulers, museums, libraries and churches.

Her widespread trade brought her into relationship with all the civilized world, and she gleaned knowledge from them all. The fall of the Greek Empire sent the learned Greeks to Venice for refuge. They taught the Venetians all that they knew, gave them the treasures of the old writers, and so implanted a love of learning in them that it is to the Venetians that we owe some of our finest literature.

Great works which would have

perished forever were translated by them, and preserved for all the world. The Arabs, who were then among the masters of learning in the world, taught the Venetians how to make gunpowder and how to make glass, and taught them also the first principles of decorative art.

East and west, wherever they went, the Venetians were always learning. In Persia they learned the art of weaving costly fabrics, and gained there a knowledge of architecture.

THE MARBLE BUILDINGS THAT ARE THE GLORY OF VENICE

Their early building combined many styles, which included the elaborate fancy of the East with the sterner simplicity of the northern countries of Europe. But all was so beautifully blended together with a distinct Venetian style, that there was nothing to be found in the world quite like it. In their conquests they destroyed old buildings so that they might have the marble for their own city. They built the inner walls of their palaces and public buildings with brick, but they covered these with slabs of marble.

One of their victories opened the way to rich quarries of red marble near Verona, and with this they were delighted. At about the same time the victory in Padua gave them possession of a hard lime which made mortar to defy the sea-water. These two little things show us how desperately anxious they were to improve their beloved city.

The building of St. Mark's Cathedral afforded work for doge after doge, and generation after generation, for hundreds of years. The square in which the wonderful cathedral stands was formerly a field with a canal running through it, and two churches were built within its boundaries. But these churches were pulled down, and the canal was stopped up to make way for the church built to receive the body of St. Mark.

ST. MARK'S CATHEDRAL, WHICH GREW BEAUTIFUL THROUGH THE CENTURIES

Wherever success attended the armies of Venice, or wherever religious men could buy, other places of worship were deprived of their treasure to enrich the walls of St. Mark's Cathedral. A good example of this we find in the story of the wonderful horses which decorate one end of the exterior of the cathedral.

For century after century the church grew; its shape was altered, its treasures increased, until, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, the great Napoleon conquered Venice, and put an end to the whole work. It possesses one of the richest collections of church plate, and its retable, or altar-piece, called the Pala d'Oro—a marvelous piece of work in gold, jewels, and enamels, which stands behind the altar—is without equal throughout the world.

It is a picture of Christ, attended by archangels and angels and prophets; but the entire work is in precious metal or valuable jewels, and the most beautiful enamel, through which the rich gold setting shines. It was brought from Constantinople in the year 976. The Doge's Palace is another of the wonders of the city, and it is not the less wonderful when we remember that it takes the place of an older building which was pulled down piece by piece to make room for the rising of the new one. It was begun in 1300 by a great doge named Pietro Gradenigo, but before it was finished 150 years had passed away.

THE DUKE WHO PAID A FINE THAT HE MIGHT MAKE VENICE BEAUTIFUL

After nearly a century had passed, the new building had been well advanced, but part of the old palace still

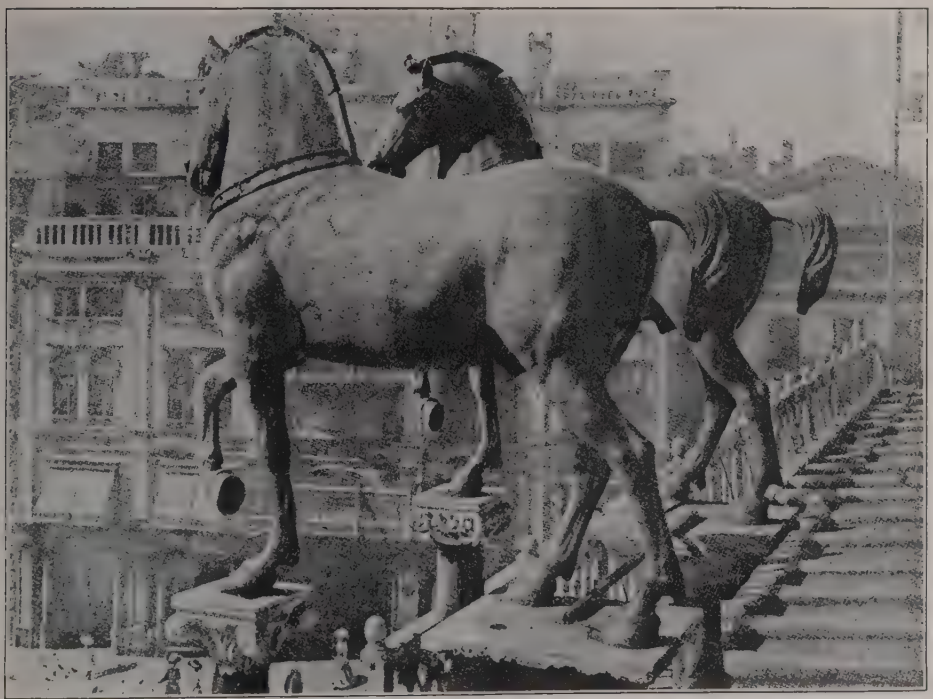
TWO OF THE MANY ARCHITECTURAL GEMS OF VENICE

The Cathedral of St. Mark at Venice, which is facing us in this picture, is one of the glories of Europe. It has been called the church that can neither be described, nor forgotten, and a writer has said that its exquisite architecture makes one glad to be living in this world. As we gaze upon its splendid sculpture, the imagination is bewildered. The great bell-tower collapsed in 1902, but the rebuilding was begun three years later.

The Rialto Bridge derives its name from the ancient part of the city of Venice, on the land at the left of the canal called the Rivo Alto. In this quarter were the warehouses, custom houses and many of the handsomest buildings. Along the footway of the bridge is a long line of shops. The first Bridge of Rialto was built in 1180 and up to this time a bridge of boats had been used.

PICTURES NO VENETIAN VISITOR EVER FORGETS

One of the places that all boys and girls want to go to is the Piazza of San Marco, in Venice—the vast square where all day long thousands of pigeons fly and walk about and feed from one's hands. It is striking to see them fly suddenly up to the eaves, where they look like black specks, as shown along the top of the building at the end of this picture.



These are two of the four bronze horses that keep guard over the portal of San Marco. These horses, if their eyes could see, would have seen some of the most splendid sights in the history of the world, for they have stood on a triumphal arch in Rome; they were taken away to adorn Constantinople when that city was building; they were carried off by Napoleon to Paris; and they are now set up again in Venice, their first home.

stood. The Venetian Council decreed that things should remain as they were, and that anyone daring to propose any more building of the new palace should be fined 1000 gold ducats. In spite of this, Doge Tomaso Mocenigo did dare to make the proposal. He paid this fine; the rest agreed, and they put the money into the building fund. The enlarging and beautifying of the palace began again in 1424, and did not stop until the work was finished.

It was in connection with this palace that the world-famous Bridge of Sighs was built, but it came more than a century later than the palace. It had been customary to have the State prisons on the ground floor of the Doge's Palace, but in 1588 the Venetians began to build new prisons on the opposite of the canal, and the bridge was made to let the prisoners pass unseen along one passage in it from the prison to the palace, and back by another passage in it to the prison, where their miserable lives would end. The man who built that bridge built also the famous Rialto Bridge, and he was known as Antonio of the Bridge. The Rialto Bridge took him very nearly three years to build, and was finished in 1591.

THE FAMOUS BELL-TOWER THAT FELL AFTER STANDING NEARLY 800 YEARS

It is not easy to point to many notable architectural features of Venice and say that they are the work of such and such a man. Their building took too long, and engaged too many men in successive generations for that. Thus it was with the famous Campanile of St. Mark's, the magnificent bell-tower standing apart from the cathedral. This was ordered by Doge Pietro Tribuno, about the year 900, but not until 1131 was it finished. It was a noble piece of work, famous in all civilized lands. It stood 325 feet in height by 42 feet square. About 600 years passed away before the well-known great summit, or lantern, with its pyramid roof, was added. They built well in those days, for the Campanile stood until 1902, then, through gradual decay, it fell to the ground. The Venetians have since rebuilt it upon the old foundations.

One name stands out among these oldtime architects which we must not overlook—the name of Frå Giovanni Giocondo, who was born at Verona, Italy, in about the middle of the fifteenth century, and died at Rome in 1514. He was a scholar and student all his days, as well as a gifted architect, and many famous men were numbered among his pupils. He traveled a great deal, and worked where he stayed.

Thus he built a fine bridge and a palace in Paris; he made a design for the building of St. Peter's at Rome, and he gave Venice some of her noblest palaces. It is sad to think that one of the most perfect products of his art, one of the smaller Venetian palaces, came in our day to be used as a wretched warehouse.

A GLORIOUS PALACE THAT WAS PLANNED IN THE MIDST OF WARS

Another of the men of this era was Michele Sanmichele, who was trained in the school of Bramante, a great artist, whom we meet among the makers of Rome. Sanmichele, like so many other men of artistic genius, was also a soldier, and the work of fortifying cities engaged in the wars of the period occupied more of his time than art. He managed to build some palaces for Venice, however, the time being about 1550. One of them still retains its glory. It was called the Palace of Grimeni, but is now used as one of the courts of justice, and remains a monument to the man who planned it amid wars and rumors of wars.

A world of sentiment has circled around the beautiful Bridge of Sighs at Venice, which connects the State Prisons with the Doge's Palace.

A greater architect than Sanmichele then arose in the person of Jacopo Sansovino, who was born at Florence in 1477, and lived in Venice from 1527 up to his death in 1570. Several churches stand to his credit in Venice, but the work which immortalized him was the building of the famous library of San Marco, and the Mint, which adjoins it. He built them at the same time, joining wall against wall, to form the most striking contrast. The library now called the Royal Palace, is one of the sights of the city—a building of great size in two stories, each supported by a series of arches of the greatest beauty.

Next followed a man to whom English architecture owes much. This was Andrea Palladio, who was born at Vicenza in 1518, and died there when sixty-two. He gave practically all his life to beautifying Venice. He built splendid churches and other edifices, but not palaces. He loved space for his work, and to rear buildings distinguished by dignity and simplicity. He went back to the best Roman style, and was the founder of modern architecture in Italy. He wrote on architecture, and his most important work came into the hands of Inigo Jones, one of the greatest of English architects, whom it greatly influenced.

We must leave the story of the architecture, and turn for a moment to the sculpture. This art in Venice remained chiefly a part of architecture. The architect was sculptor, too. The reasons were twofold. In the first place, the city clung to the examples of the East, which did not provide statues apart from buildings. In the second place, there was a strong desire to keep such open spaces as there were in Venice free from statues.

ANDREA PISANO, SCULPTOR

So little was the art of the sculptor encouraged that several of the doges in the Middle Ages were buried in tombs carved in the East hundreds of years before. However, Andrea Pisano, one of the great workers of Florence set an example in the fourteenth century which Venetian sculptors were to follow. The seed thus sown grew slowly, but surely, and from Pisano's day the sculptural work of Venice became more important.

Instead of bringing sculptural decorations from other lands, as they had been in the habit of doing, the Venetians encouraged their own citizens, or, at any rate, men resident in their midst. The first sculptors of note were the Masegne family, who lived in the fourteenth century and the earlier half of the fifteenth century. Next came Pietro Niccolo, of Florence, and Giovanni di Martino, of Fiesole, who worked together and produced, among other works, a fine tomb for the doge who had insisted on continuing the building of the Doge's Palace. They had a fine wooden statue of John the Baptist, from Donatello; and Antonio Rizzo, who acted as one of the architects of the Doge's Palace, and also carried out important military engineering work, proved himself a gifted sculptor, only he ruined himself by dishonesty, and had to flee the city.

A GIFTED FAMILY OF SCULPTORS AND PAINTERS

Much excellent sculptural work was done by the Lombardo family—the Lombardi, as they are called. Not much is known of their history, though Lombardi works are numerous in Venice. The best known of the family was Pietro Lombardo, who died in the first half of the sixteenth century. He had three skilful sons, named Tullio, Antonio, and Giulio; and there were two other Lombardi known to Venice: Sante Lombardo and Moro Lombardo.

All the Lombardi were sculptors or painters. In the workshops of the Lombardi many other sculptors received their training, among them being Alessandro Leopardi, whose name is familiar to every visitor to Venice. Born in the latter half of the fifteenth century, he died about 1545, but his fame remains fresh. Two things make him always notable—the majestic flagstaffs which rise in front of St. Mark's, and the work which he did in connection with the statue of Bartolommeo Colleoni, a famous soldier of Venice who lived in the fifteenth century.

Colleoni's deeds of war are of no account today; he is of no more importance to the world than if he had never lived, but he is of interest as having called forth a supreme work of art. He gained great wealth from the wars, and at his death he left all his money and horses and arms to the State, on the condition that they should raise a statue to his memory.

How a forger was called back to Venice to cast a famous statue

The Venetians faithfully carried out their part of the bargain. Although Venetian sculpture was making progress, they could not trust one of their own citizens to do this work. They sent to Florence for Andrea del Verrocchio, who was famous as painter, sculptor, and goldsmith, and memorable to us as a teacher of Leonardo da Vinci. He was born in 1435, and was forty-four when sent for to make the Colleoni statue. He — Verrocchio — had only nine years to live and we might fancy that he realized that this was to be the last and greatest work of his life.

He devoted to the task all his strength and skill and art, but death overtook him before he could make the bronze casting of the statue of horse and rider. He finished the model and died. Venice had upon her hands the finest model of a horse and rider that had ever been made in the history of the world, but who was to cast it and set it up for all time? There was only one man—Alessandro Leopardi. But he had fallen into evil ways, and some years before had been driven from the city as a forger and criminal. In their need they recalled him, and told him to make the casting.

He atoned for his sin by the way in which he executed the task. He produced a splendid work from Verrocchio's model. The pedestal he modeled and made himself, and it worthily combines in every way with the horse and rider.

One of the noblest monuments ever set up on the earth

The statue is still without comparison. Horse and man seem alive Mr. Ruskin thought it one of the noblest monuments ever set up on the face of the earth. Colleoni rides with defiant features, proud in his strength as a man, fierce and disdainful in his skill as a general. The horse moves heavily, but with great strength, as upon some dreadful battle field. Leopardi was not satisfied with the fame which the pedestal gave him, but wrote his name upon the girth of the horse, as though the whole design were his. But nothing can rob Verrocchio of the honor of modeling one of the greatest masterpieces in the world.

But, after all, the great splendor and wonder of Venice belong to her paintings. There never was another place where such a glorious kingdom of pictorial art grew up. Venice is as supreme in this respect as she is for the beauty of her situation and buildings. Her supremacy was not soon won. For a long time she had painters of no special merit—men who painted, not in oils, but in distemper. These pictures were not like life, nor did they

express any high ideal. It was just the bad old Italian art that they represented, dull, wooden-looking pictures done in churches and on the walls of other buildings. Then the Bellini family arose, and with them came new light. The glory of Venetian art dawned with them. They began to paint finely in distemper before ever the art of oil-painting had been heard of in Venice.

How the Glory of Art in Venice Dawned with the Bellini Family

The improvement began with Jacopo Bellini, who was born probably about 1400, and died about 1464. Jacopo was a pupil of a famous artist named Gentile da Fabriano, a native of Fabriano, who died at Rome about the year 1428. Jacopo followed his master to Florence, where he met all the great men of the time.

He had two sons. The first, born in 1426, he named Gentile, after his old master. The younger son, born in 1428, he named Giovanni. Jacopo never became a great artist himself. His work was an improvement upon anything ever done before in Venice, but his chief credit is that he was the father of two notable sons, who carried out his own splendid ideas.

They worked together with him, and all the young artists of Venice who desired to become great in their art flocked to their studio to become pupils. Giorgione and Titian were of the number. Gentile Bellini painted scenes from the life of Venice; Giovanni Bellini painted religious subjects as Venice had never before seen them painted. Gentile painted portraits, and gained such fame that he was sent for by the Sultan of Turkey to paint his portrait at Constantinople.

The Savage Act of a Cruel Man

Gentile went and painted a famous picture of the cruel man who then ruled over Turkey. This wretch one day wished to show that Bellini had not correctly painted the head of John the Baptist after death, so he drew his sword and cut off the head of a slave standing near. So horrified was the artist that he never rested until he got back to Venice.

But a great change had now come over the art of Venice. An artist named Antonello, of Messina, appeared in Venice, bringing with him a new art. He had learned from Hubert and Jan van Eyck, the great Flemish artists, their secret of painting with colors mixed with oils. Let us look for a moment at a scene painted for the stage of a theater; it is done in distemper, the medium in which the artists of Venice had been working. Then let us remember one of the oil-paintings at the National Gallery, London which is the style of work that Antonello introduced. It set all the people in Venice wondering.

How the Precious Secret of Painting in Oils Became Known in Venice

The story runs that Giovanni Bellini went in disguise to Antonello to have his portrait painted, solely that he might learn for himself the great secret. Whatever the truth of this story, we know that the grand secret was soon mastered in Venice, and that the Bellinis were the first to help make it famous by their work. Venice was now glorified by many brilliant works of the brothers. They had the happiness, too, of seeing young artists promising to become even greater than themselves growing up about them.

But the Venetian authorities feared that death would come too soon and carry off Giovanni Bellini before his work for them was done. Though they paid very poorly for the work, they loved his art, and were determined to get as much out of him as possible.

They therefore decreed that he should work every day in one of the great state apartments which he was decorating, and that he should have assistants.

These young men had only four or five ducats a month as payment, and the great Titian was one of the workmen appointed as painters on these terms.

How Venice Treated the Mighty Titian. A Story of Carpaccio

The document stating the terms of his engagement refers to him with as little ceremony as if he were a poor man called in to whitewash a ceiling. He became one of the greatest painters of all time. The mighty genius of Titian could never have developed in the way that it did had not Jacopo Bellini and his two illustrious sons given a new turn to the world of art.

One of the first of the new school of artists to be influenced by the Bellinis was Vittore Carpaccio. He was born in Istria, about 1450, and lived seventy-two years. We have seen how the idea of painting scenes from life began to take the place of pictures which had been painted again and again in the same old flat style. Carpaccio carried on the work in the noblest way. Some of the painters of his age took subjects from heathen books for their pictures. Carpaccio painted beautiful stories upon his canvases. His pictures told the story of the lives of saints and heroes; they were made to appeal to the mind and the soul, not, like some others, merely to the eye.

Like many other artists of that age, he was always comparatively poor, and we find a curious letter, written by him to a rich nobleman, describing a picture of Jerusalem which he wished to sell. The picture, he says, was twenty-five feet high and five and one-half feet wide, and, in order that it could be inspected, he wished to send it to the nobleman, "rolled round a piece of wood." Fancy an artist having to send a picture to an academy rolled around wood instead of being packed flat!

A Wonderful Artist Who Died Young in a Wonderful Age

Another great man arose in these days. Soon after the birth of Titian—that is, in 1477—Giorgione was born. As Giotto perfected the changes introduced by Cimabué, his master, into Florentine art, so Giorgione ennobled the art schemes of his masters, the Bellini family. Giorgione not only enriched the city by his wonderful frescoes and other paintings, but had a most powerful influence upon the artists of his own day—upon Titian among them, and upon the artists who followed. Unlike several of the men of his day, Giorgione did not attain a great age, dying, all too soon, when only thirty-three.

This was a wonderful age for Venice. Every rich man was willing to employ artists. They may not have paid well, but there was no very serious competition. And we find Giorgione, and Titian, and others, painting lovely works on articles of furniture, and other artists rivaling the goldsmiths in the splendor with which they decorated the outside of buildings with the glories of the brush.

Much talent was wasted in this way. Some of the artists would do anything for money. Titian was, perhaps, the most grasping of them all. We cannot but admire his works, but the nature of the man was in some respects detestable. This mean nature was never more apparent than in his treatment of another great man, Tintoretto, to whom we now come. His real name was Jacopo Robusti, and he was born at Venice in 1518, and died in 1594. His father was a dyer—

a tintore—and so they called Jacopo, his son, Tintoretto, or Tintorettino, meaning "the little dyer." The clever boy was a born artist.

THE BOY WHO DAUBED THE WALLS AND BECAME A FAMOUS PAINTER

He used to dabble in his father's dyes, and to splash the colors all over the walls and furniture until his parents must have found him a nuisance. Seeing which way the lad's genius was inclined the father took him to the studio of Titian. Jacopo's apprenticeship lasted but a few days.

Titian went into the studio one morning and saw, lying on the floor, papers covered with drawings. He picked them up, and asked who had done them. Little Tintoretto shyly confessed that he had. Titian saw that they were the work of a genius; he saw that this boy might soon become a rival to himself. He left the studio at once, and that same day had the poor boy turned out.

It was a shameful thing, but brave young Tintoretto was not to be beaten. His life became a miracle of activity. He set before himself two models—Michaelangelo for design; Titian, his cruel master, for color. Wherever he could see a work by either of these two he studied it. He copied antique statues. He made numberless drawings to perfect his style. He studied the human frame as a whole and in its various parts.

HOW TINTORETTO PAINTED PRICELESS PICTURES ON THE WALLS OF HOUSES

He made models of wax on which to hang draperies for the figures he meant to paint. He copied tombstones and bits of broken statuary. He studied the methods of every artist in every studio into which he dared to peep. He went down into the square where the poor painters worked who painted common furniture and cabinets for sale, and studied how they got some of their effects. He followed the work of architects. He used to beg builders to let him decorate houses which they were erecting.

Once he painted designs all round a clock which the builders were erecting in a tower. Another builder was putting up a new house, and Tintoretto insisted on painting the walls with lovely frescoes, simply for the cost of the materials he used. He would do paintings for chapels and churches and other buildings for practically nothing.

A MASTERPIECE THAT WAS PAINTED ON A CEILING IN A FEW DAYS

He did anything and everything to perfect his art and make his name known. He worked with marvelous speed, and, of course, the effect was not always good. But in time he made a very great name, and became one of the five greatest painters of all time. One story must suffice to show his passion for work and the marvelous way in which he carried it out.

The ceiling of the San Rocco School was to be decorated with a painting and the artists of Venice were asked to send in sketches for the work. There were not many days for the preparation. The other artists made their rough plans. Not so Tintoretto. He had the space measured and, with that zeal and speed which nobody could match, he painted his whole picture, and had it secretly fixed up on the ceiling and covered over.

When the day of trial came, the others showed their sketches, while Tintoretto stood by. At last he drew away the linen covering the ceiling, and the company saw his splendid picture already fixed.

Everybody was amazed. The authorities, when they recovered their breath, protested that they had asked only for designs not for a finished picture.

THE WONDERFUL PAINTING THAT MADE THE AUTHORITIES OF VENICE ANGRY

The other artists, however, examined the work, and seeing how great and exquisite it was, they withdrew from the competition. The authorities, however, were very angry indeed, and still grumbled furiously.

"Oh, very well; there is the picture!" said Tintoretto. "If you will not pay me for it, then I will make it a present to the saints."

After that the city authorities calmed down and, deciding that the work was one of rare merit, they at last agreed to pay the artist fairly for it.

The last of the greatest Venetian painters was Paul Veronese. He was born in 1528 at Verona, whence his title, his real name being Caliara, or Cagliari. He lived in Venice from 1555 till his death in 1588. His pictures were characterized by the brilliance of coloring proper to works of the great Venetian school, but he had caught the spirit of painters in Rome, and gave to his work more dignity, grace of pose, and ease of movement than had been possible before his day.

Paul Veronese was a painter more for the palace than the church. His scenes were scenes of splendor, of great space and riches and luxury, so that it has been said that one of his paintings would convert a garret into a palace of vast size and delight. He was a great worker, but different in type from Tintoretto, taking careful pains with all that he painted.

THE GLORY THAT HAS GONE FROM VENICE AND THE GLORY THAT REMAINS

In the Louvre at Paris there hangs his picture called "The Marriage Feast at Cana," showing no fewer than 160 portraits of people who lived in Venice in his day. The strange thing is that this painter of splendor and palaces should, like Tintoretto and Titian, have painted frescoes on the outside of houses which faded away and disappeared under the influence of the weather while the artists themselves were still alive.

With the death of Paul Veronese, the sun of Venetian art set. But the afterglow has lighted the world for more than three hundred years, firing the enthusiasm of all the artists who have lived since.

While the glory of Venice as a maritime power, holding a great part of the commerce of the world in her hand, and forming a link between the East and the West, is departed forever, the more lasting glory which attaches to her as a patron of the highest and best art will never die. So long as Venice and her pictures last, they will remain the greatest treasures in the world, guiding and inspiring the artists who see them, and making our modern artists realize the influence which those beautiful and wonderful pictures have had upon the art of the whole world from the day that they were painted until the present.

WHY ALL THE WORLD GOES TO VENICE

How should one write of Venice? Venice is a city, for centuries a kingdom, that has grown up on the dust of the Alps, brought down by the rivers and cast into the sea. Into these islands men drove huge piles, upon which they built magnificent palaces.

They went on building until the islands were crowded, until scores of islands were linked by hundreds of bridges, and this wonder-city, rising from the sea, with the waves beating all around it, with the sea surging through its streets and into its houses at every highest tide, served as a central magnet, attracting to itself great dreamers and workers from the cities around.

Here came painters and sculptors and poets and preachers and builders

and workers in mosaic such as never before came together in the history of the world. Here, even long after the ruin of Venice, came Byron and Browning and Ruskin and Wagner. Wherever you go, are treasures of art declaring for all time the everlasting majesty of man.

And all through the centuries in which men have been building up this glory, Venice was growing in political power.

What the Sea Did for Venice

The influence of the sea, Mr. Ruskin has pointed out, is a marvelous example of the way in which Nature shapes history. Think of Venice if the sea had washed away the dust of the Alps as the rivers brought it down: there would have been, in that case, no Venice to think of. Think of the tide a few inches higher or a few inches lower; in either case it would have made access to the houses impossible, and there would thus have been no Venice again. If the sea had made these waterways broader and deeper there would have been a Venice, no doubt, but not the Venice we know, for the navies of strong powers would have sailed up these canals, depriving Venice of both her isolation and independence, and therefore of her artistic pre-eminence, because her energies would have been diverted into other and less fruitful channels. If the canals had been so narrow and shallow that they had received no tide at all, they would have become so offensive that life would have been impossible; and if the surges had been stronger, the whole character of Venice would have been changed, because, instead of dainty palaces, she must have built strong sea-walls, and spent most of her energy in keeping back the sea.

A City Not Made with Hands

But more inclined should we be to give honor to the little armies of devoted men who, through the centuries, have added stone to stone until this wondrous monument of human genius has arisen out of the waves. What builders they were! What dreams they dreamed! They worked better, perhaps, than they knew; or they worked well because they loved their work.

How Life Seems in Venice

But there is a life, and an atmosphere of Venice, which are wonderful to see and feel. Were you ever in a town where, with all the space and business of ordinary town life, there has been no noise save the voices of men and women, the flight of birds, and the splashing of oars? Not a horse, a train, a cab, a street car or automobile may be seen.

There are people here who have never seen a horse; it may be true that no horse's hoof has ever been heard in this city's streets—though Ruskin says that the bronze horse on which the soldier Colleoni sits is one of the noblest horses ever sculptured on the earth; and though there stand, over the central portals of San Marco, four of the most famous bronze horses in the world.

The Horses above San Marco

They were made, it is claimed, by an unknown artist of Corinth, and set up nearly 2000 years ago. Nero saw them, and took them to Rome to adorn his triumphal arch. Constantine took them to his capital when he set up a new Rome at Constantinople. From here they were sent back to Venice, but once again were removed, this time by Napoleon to Paris. After Napoleon's fall the horses were returned to San Marco. These four horses, therefore, have helped to make beautiful four of the greatest cities in the history of the world.

But in the square upon which they look down today no horse is ever seen,

HOW VENICE IS ANCHORED IN THE SEA

This picture shows how Venice is built in the sea. Wooden piles were driven into the sea-bed, and on these was built a wooden platform to form a base for the blocks of stone which form the foundations of the palaces. This picture shows the palace where Robert Browning lived and died, with an imaginary view of the foundations. The mud and clay are supposed to be removed from the front of the piles.

no sign of traffic such as we find wherever else we go.

Is there anywhere else in the world such a place for children as the Piazza of San Marco, the great square across which the Campanile fell one sunny morning a number of years ago, and has since been rebuilt. Nowhere else in the world, perhaps, can we make friends with hundreds of birds in a minute. How many pigeons there are, certainly nobody knows. They seem to have been here always, flying about in this huge square.

THE STORY OF THE PIGEONS

It is said that for six hundred years there have been pigeons in the square. An old story tells how Venice was besieged by an enemy, whose forces were knit so closely around its gates that no messenger could get through. The people of Venice were starving; so little food was there in the city that the pigeons in the bell-towers had to fly for food to the mainland. Outside was an army coming to the relief of Venice, and the commander, catching a number of pigeons, tied notes to their feet, and so let the suffering people know that help was at hand. Venice was then able to hold out until the friendly army could enter, and ever since, the people have kept the pigeons at the public expense, in memory of their service to the city. It is quite easy to see that there are more than a thousand of them, and to see them, all at the same moment, rise from the ground and fly across the square is a sight that the traveler never forgets. Some little thing that has happened—nobody knows quite what—will set this host of birds in flight. A single movement of a child, perhaps, or some queer sound that our own ears do not catch, and a thousand pigeons are flapping their wings in the air with quite a startling sound. Yet certainly it is not fear, for the pigeons of Venice have no fear. Nobody ever harmed a single one of them. At the corner of the square sits a man with his sacks of peas and corn, making little bags all day long, and filling them and all day long boys and girls, and men and women, buy the corn and throw it to the birds. A handful of corn thrown on to the ground, and a hundred birds are at your feet.

A hundred things are here unlike all other cities. Climb to a great height in London, in Paris, in Cairo, in Athens, in Milan, almost anywhere, and the thing that comes first into the vision is the animated scene, the little people in the streets, the toy traffic on the bridges, horses and automobiles, and the whole world as seen through a telescope turned the wrong way. Things are not like that in Venice.

Look down from a high tower, and you look upon a city of the dead. Not a street is to be seen, not one particle of this great island scene is moving. Closely packed with houses and churches, built high and so near together that you can shake hands across many streets, the eye cannot pick out, from above, a single canal, not one of those four hundred bridges; even the Grand Canal, the chief waterway that divides Venice in two halves like a big S turned round, winds its way among palaces so tall that from a distant height it cannot be seen. And so the result is an image of a silent city, fitting impression of Venice, even now. The chisels of the sculptors, the hammers of the builders, are no more. The great marble palaces belong to the past that has gone. All but a few of them are workshops, wine-cellars, or tradesmen's storehouses today. Only the imagination sees them as they were. Venice is paying for her long neglect, and the tax of her carelessness is her ruin.

THE BUILDERS OF FLORENCE

THERE are four or five places in Europe to which all travelers desire to make their way. They wish to see Paris, with its noble boulevards, its handsome buildings, and all the attractions which give Paris its special distinction. But the man who loves beauty in repose, the grandeur of sculpture, the dreams of genius, fixed in stone, this man longs for the days which will take him to Florence, to Venice, and to Rome.

The great architects and sculptors and painters of Florence and Venice and Rome were many. They were for the most part men in humble positions and they loved the tasks to which their lives were devoted. To create beautiful buildings and sculpture was to these men something quite in the ordinary business of life. They did not always realize the splendor of their work. They gave the best of their talent, but gave it simply, without fuss or boast, seldom dreaming, perhaps, how future generations would marvel at their achievements.

If we stand amazed now at the beauty of these cities of Italy, we are not less surprised when we recall how these beauties were brought into existence. The cities were already old and well established, when it was decided to rid them of their ugliness, and to clothe their streets and squares with grandeur. It was a right and natural ambition, of course; but the wonderful thing is that the cities found ready, in the course of no very long time, the men capable of carrying out, in the best possible way, the high ideals from which the search for beauty grew. Architects and sculptors arose whose works have seldom been excelled in the history of the world. Many of them sprang from such humble circumstances that we do not know their early history.

How Arnolfo began the great work of making Florence beautiful

One of these men of humble birth is Arnolfo di Cambio. We meet him first in the company of a band of workmen who were engaged with him at work in the cathedral of Siena. He was still a young man, having been born about 1232. With him was a man named Lapo, whom he sometimes called his father and sometimes called his teacher. All these workmen were skilful artists, going from town to

A VIEW OF FLORENCE

Florence lies in a cup-like hollow, encircled by hills from which one can look out over the roof-tops of the city. Here and there above the flatness of the smaller buildings rise imposing structures, the Cathedral, Brunelleschi's Dome, Giotto's Tower and others of less importance.

town in Italy, beautifying existing buildings or putting up new ones. It was Arnolfo that Florence chose to begin her great work of beautifying the city. The young workman became suddenly renowned as an architect and sculptor, and while similar tasks were being attempted in the neighboring cities, he went swiftly to work to give Florence some of the buildings which to this day help to make her famous.

He was the father of her architecture. He surrounded the city with stately walls, he built her noble cathedral and two of her most beautiful churches, and he planned the famous public palace of the city, where the governors of Florence held their meetings. But Arnolfo could not finish all the great works that he began. He died in 1300, leaving something for those who followed to complete.

How Cimabue began painting pictures and found Giotto minding sheep

While Arnolfo was creating wonders in stone, a Florentine named Giovanni Cimabue, born in 1240, was adding to her pictorial treasures. The art of painting had at this time fallen very low in Italy. Foreigners, who all copied bad models, ruled the world of art. Cimabue began, as other young artists began, by copying these unsatisfactory models. Soon, however, his independence made him strike out for himself, and to paint men and women and the things about him as they really seemed. Because he tried truly to paint as he saw things he is honored with the title of the Father of Modern Painting. He died two years after Arnolfo, in 1302. But before he died he had trained a greater than himself to succeed him. This was Giotto di Bondone, always called simply Giotto.

Giotto was born in, or about 1266, the son of a poor peasant at Vespignano, near Florence. While he was still a little boy, Giotto was placed by his father with some shepherds to earn his living by watching the flocks. Giotto may have been a loving shepherd, but he loved art better. Without ever having had a lesson, he used to give all his leisure to drawing on the rocks with pieces of chalk. While the boy was thus engaged one day making a skilful drawing of a sheep, Cimabue found him. The great artist, pleased at the boy's industry and talent, asked if he would like to go home with him and learn to paint. Permission having been gained from the boy's father, Giotto was taken to Florence and instructed by his good friend. Giotto proved a ready pupil. He learned all that Cimabue could teach him, and proved better than his master.

Giotto, the laughing artist who talked merrily with the king

Cimabue had paved the way for a great change in the methods of artists; Giotto was really the first to give it expression. He was about twenty-four when he gained his first important commission. This was to paint a picture of Paradise over a church altar. An interesting thing happened about this. Dante, the great poet of Florence, was at this time living in his native city, and had shown himself a friend of the young artist. So, as Giotto sat perched high up on his little platform near the roof of the church, he thought of what he owed the poet, and showed his gratitude by painting a beautiful portrait of Dante among the angel faces of his picture. That portrait is the finest of the great poet that we have, for it was painted before sorrow and care had marred the noble features of Dante.

Giotto's talent was speedily recognized. He was paid to do paintings for the famous church in which St. Francis of Assisi is buried; for

FLORENCE AS A CENTER OF ARTISTIC CULTURE IN THE TIME OF THE MEDICI

churches at Padua, Verona, Naples and elsewhere, and for many in Florence.

Wherever he went he was always the simple laughing peasant turned artist. He had a merry jest for everybody, whether it was king or clown. Said a king who employed him: "I wouldn't work upon that scaffold this hot day if I were you." "Nor would I if I were you," answered the laughing artist.

The Beautiful Tower of Giotto That Stands in the Streets of Florence

When he was an old man, only three years from the grave, Giotto was made master of the public works of Florence, and given charge of the building of the cathedral, left incomplete, as we have seen, by the death of Arnolfo, thirty years before. Not only had Giotto now to superintend the work of others; he had to create, with measuring instrument, with hammer and chisel, as he had been wont to create with his paints and brushes. He was called upon to design a campanile, a tower in which to hang bells. He did the work with as light a heart as if it were an everyday occurrence. He planned and designed one of the most beautiful towers ever built. It is one of the marvels and beauties of Florence today, and visitors are proud to bring away from Florence bronze models of it. Not only did Giotto plan it, he worked with mallet and chisel at some of the carvings which adorn it. One of the carvings represents a little puppy, a puppy which he had loved as a child when minding the sheep, and had remembered, years afterward, when he was one of the most famous men in Italy.

The beloved Giotto passed to his rest in 1337, but in Florence were found three other wonderful men. These were Filippo Brunelleschi, born in 1377; Lorenzo Ghiberti, born in 1378; and Donato Di Betto Bardi, called Donatello, born in 1386.

The Gates for Which All Italy's Artists Made Plans

The first two came into prominence when Ghiberti was about twenty-four, and then met as friendly rivals. Ghiberti was of poor family. We know nothing about his father, but we hear of his stepfather, an excellent man, named Bartoluccio, who instructed young Ghiberti in his art as a goldsmith, then did a wise thing by sending the lad traveling, to enlarge his knowledge of art, and, at the same time, to earn his living.

Ghiberti was a wonderful fellow. When he was not painting pictures he was modeling in wax, or making figures in bronze, or doing something with trinkets. Before he turned his face homeward, he had earned fame by painting some fine frescoes in a palace at Rimini. He was working at Pesaro when he received a letter from his stepfather telling him that all the most skilful artists in Italy were summoned to show their genius in designing gates of bronze for the famous church of San Giovanni, the church to which all the children of Florence were then, as now, taken to be christened. Here was Ghiberti's chance. He needed not his stepfather's bidding to hasten home; so anxious was he to reach Florence that the journey seemed to him, as he said, like a thousand years. He drew his plan, and sent it in to take its place with the designs of the most famous men of the time.

The Great Chance of Ghiberti's Life and the Use He Made of It

Among the other competitors was young Filippo Brunelleschi. He was a lawyer's son, and his father had desired him to follow the law. But Filippo early gave his heart to the work of the goldsmith, and dearly he hoped now to win the prize. When

the designs were exhibited he took with him his humble young friend, Donatello. They examined them all, and saw that Brunelleschi's was better than all save that of Ghiberti, which was superior to all the rest. And so the judges found. Ghiberti was ordered to undertake the work; this young wandering workman of twenty-four was chosen before all the other artists who competed.

This proved to be the work of Ghiberti's life. The first pair of gates took twenty years to make, and the second pair, even longer. Thus fifty years of his career were given to the work, which was not finished until Brunelleschi was already in his grave. But while Ghiberti was doing the gates with the assistance of a staff of artist-workmen, he was engaged in other labors, too. He did some beautiful work for two or three churches of Florence, as well as for the cathedral; he modeled fine statues, and did some beautiful goldsmith's work.

THE GATES THAT MICHAELANGELO SAID WERE FIT TO BE THE GATES OF HEAVEN

Ghiberti was even given part share with Brunelleschi of the building work at the cathedral, but here as a builder he was a failure. Brunelleschi could not work with him, and had to refuse to go on unless Ghiberti were kept to work of his own; and, even when they were able to give him his own work, Ghiberti was found to be incompetent for building, and was removed. His grandest monument is the wonderful pair of gates, which for mingled grace and grandeur are finer than anything else of the sort in existence. Michael-angelo declared that they were fit to be the gates of heaven. Ghiberti loved the work, and he gave the best of his life to it. Though its progress was so slow, all the most exalted people in Florence were interested in it. In those days Florence was an unlighted city at night, save for the torches which people carried, and everybody not specially authorized had to be indoors by nightfall. But Ghiberti, though no higher in rank than the rest of the common people, became a public character when he began the gates, and he and all his workpeople were allowed to walk about the streets and to carry lanterns, at whatever hour of the night they liked—a rare privilege indeed in those days.

It was well for Filippo Brunelleschi that he did not get permission to make the gates, for there was other important work for him to do, even greater in some respects than Ghiberti's.

HOW BRUNELLESCHI BUILT THE DOME THAT IS STILL THE GLORY OF FLORENCE

Having failed in his contest with Ghiberti, he went off to Rome to indulge his passion for architectural drawing. He had already sketched every building in Florence, and he longed to make a new drawing showing how Arnolfo's grand cathedral could be completed by the addition of a dome. So at Rome he studied all the great buildings. He made drawings of them; he noted how they were constructed, how beauty was combined with strength, and lightness with mass. In order that he might have money to live on, he would work during the day for the goldsmiths, then at night go on with the drawings of his beloved buildings. Never did a man more thoroughly train himself for a task than did young Filippo for the dome of the Florence Cathedral.

At last, in 1407, when he was thirty years of age, he returned to Florence, and offered to the city authorities plans for the building of a dome. It took the wise men of Florence thirteen years to come to a decision. In that time

LORENZO GHIBERTI'S "GATES OF PARADISE"

In the open streets of Florence hang these wondrous gates. They are the main gates of the three baptistery which was the chief church in Florence before the great cathedral, now facing it, was built. They are, perhaps, the most famous gates in the world, and they took nearly THIRTY years to build. They were designed and carried out by Lorenzo Ghiberti, who began them in 1423 and finished them in 1452. Michelangelo thought them fit to be the gates of Paradise, and they are among the most wonderful things in a wonderful city.

every sort of objection was raised, and everybody's opinion was taken. Other artists made designs, and the wildest of schemes were suggested for carrying out the work. But in the end Brunelleschi gained the day, and was told to carry out his plans. His one sorrow was that Ghiberti, who now stood high up in public favor, was to share the labor with him. Brunelleschi knew that Ghiberti was quite incapable of architecture and that is why he did not wish him to share in the work.

The dome took over forty years to build, and Brunelleschi had been fifteen years in his grave when it was completed. But his plans were so perfect, his methods so excellent, and his personal labors during the last twenty-six years of his life so persistent, that the faithful band of workers who followed him had but to carry to the obvious end what he had begun, to make his work one of the grandest features in the architecture of Europe.

THE MERRY DONATELLO AND HIS WONDERFUL FIGURES IN STONE

So far we have met Donatello only by name. He was the young friend who went with Brunelleschi to see Ghiberti's drawing for the gates. He was one of the merriest fellows, and perhaps it was because of the youth's sunny nature that Brunelleschi who was ten years older, became his friend and companion. Donatello was the son of a wool merchant, who apprenticed him to a man who is supposed to have been Ghiberti's stepfather. At any rate, the boy learned, like Brunelleschi, the goldsmith's art, and going to Rome with his friend, was able to support himself there by his skill in working in metals.

While Brunelleschi was studying the classic architecture of Rome, Donatello was studying the statuary. He had not his friend's capacity for great schemes and buildings, but he had just as fine a genius, and though he laughed and joked his way through life, he was destined to become Italy's greatest sculptor of later times, and the father of modern sculpture.

Before he went to Rome as a boy of fifteen he had carved a crucifix in wood, a statue of Mary Magdalene, and a marble statue of St. John, each of which may still be seen in Florence today. When he returned from the Eternal City, as Rome is called, he was twenty-one, and a finished sculptor.

DONATELLO'S STATUES FOR GIOTTO'S TOWER AND HIS FIGURE OF ST. GEORGE

Giotto's tower still needed some decoration, and Donatello was one of the sculptors engaged to complete it. He carved for it a lifelike figure called Zuccone, and as he gazed upon his finished work he took up his mallet, and, giving the statue a playful tap, said to it: "Speak!" Michaelangelo, who was not born until nine years after the death of Donatello, saw one of the famous statues. This was the wonderful figure of St. George, clad in mail, looking as if it is ready to step down from its pedestal and do battle against wrong-doing and evil. And as Michaelangelo looked, he remembered what Donatello had said to Zuccone, and he himself now shouted: "March!" Could there be a finer compliment to a great sculptor's work?

All Donatello's statues are famous. They are beautiful in themselves, but they are important because of the effect they have had upon later sculpture. He had closely studied the glorious work of the ancients, and he reproduced their methods, stamped with his own genius. Until his day, men had been content to let the statues they carved be part of the buildings to which they belonged, as a cornice or a scroll is part of a build-

LOOKING DOWN A FAMOUS FLORENTINE STREET

We have in this picture one of the most striking glimpses of the streets of Florence. On the right and left are the long corridors of the famous Uffizi Gallery, full of priceless paintings, and beyond, rising to a marvelous height, is the wonderful Vecchio Palace, built of huge stones hundreds of years ago. Here Lorenzo the Magnificent held his Liberian court, patronizing painters and sculptors; here, in a little cell at the top of the tower, Savonarola, the eloquent monk who preached to the Florentines, spent his last night on earth. In the niches between the columns are statues of great men of Florence whose names are famous throughout the world.

ing. Donatello made them actual portraits in stone, things of life and beauty, independent of their surroundings; figures whose merits command attention and admiration for themselves.

THE MODESTY OF DONATELLO, AND THE FAME OF THE DELLA ROBBIA FAMILY

From his thinking so highly of his work that he bade one of his statues "speak," it might be thought, perhaps, that Donatello was a vain man. But he was not. When people greatly praised him for his work in Padua, he said that he must return to Florence. "If I stay here, where I am praised by everybody," he said, "I shall soon forget all I know. At home in Florence everybody abuses me, and thus I am kept up to the mark, the constant blame forcing me constantly to study, and, consequently, to do better work."

All that he earned he used to put in a basket and hang up in his workshop, so that his friends and workmen could help themselves without troubling to ask him. He lived through a happy old age, and died when he was eighty.

The lives of the men we have so far studied show us that the decoration of Florence was an unbroken series of works, spread over many years. The next man of genius to carry on the work was the sculptor, Luca Della Robbia. He was born in Florence in 1400, and was one of Ghiberti's pupils. He took to art as naturally as Giotto had done, and showed such skill in working with marble and bronze that in 1437 he was ordered to complete the series of carvings in relief on one of the sides of Giotto's campanile.

The work was so beautifully done by Luca that it is hard to tell his work from that done by Giotto at his best. Donatello had done some famous carvings in the cathedral, and Luca was given the task of carving a similar set for another part of the cathedral. Donatello's were wonderful, but Luca's were even better. They were figures of singing angels and dancing boys, and were beautiful as the hand of man could make them.

This was not the only time that Luca Della Robbia and Donatello were rivals. The jolly Donatello was ordered to make a bronze door for one of the cathedral chapels, but he was too busy, or too happy, in doing other things, so the work was taken from him and given to Luca. The latter took twenty-one years over his task, but it was work fine enough to have occupied an artist a lifetime. The door is divided into ten panels, and the figures in it seem alive.

There were other Della Robbias after Luca. He taught his nephew, Andrea Della Robbia, and Andrea taught five of his seven sons, of whom Giovanni was, after Luca and Andrea, the most famous of this talented family. Two of the seven sons became monks in order to follow Savonarola. These two sons of Andrea would thus be drawn into the company of Fra Bartolommeo, who, born in 1475, became one of the most renowned of Florentine artists.

WHEN the Angles and Saxons had lived for some time in England, and had settled down to a peaceful life, there came a barbarous folk called the Danes, who ravaged all the places by the seaside, and then began to threaten not the coasts only, but the whole land. And though the Saxons fought stoutly against them, yet the Danes were fiercer and more skilled in war; and they conquered nearly all the north country, which was then called the Danelaw.

But they did not conquer the West Saxons, the men of Wessex, who dwelt south of the Thames and the Severn. Now, there arose a great king in Wessex, who fought against the Danes, and drove them back so far that they were forced to make peace, though they had no love of peace. And this king was Alfred, of whom nothing ill, but all good, is told, both for his skill and valor in war, and for his wise law-making, and for his learning, his wisdom, his justice, mercy, and courtesy. He is the king of whom it is told that at one time, when the Danes had beaten his army in a battle, he had to flee; and he came, all travel-worn and weary, to the cottage of a neat-herd—that is, a man who kept cows. The king asked the neat-herd's wife for food and shelter. But she, not knowing who he was, said he must work for his food and lodging, though, as he seemed so weary, he might sit by the fire and see to the cakes she was baking. But, as he sat his thoughts went far away from the cakes to planning how he could gather his army again and free the land from the Danes, so that when the busy dame came back into the room the cakes were all burned and spoiled; and the king had his ears well boxed for being a lazy loon. Later, when she found he was the king, she was in a terrible fright; but he laughed and told her she had only treated him as he deserved.

Alfred gathered his men again, and beat the Danes, so that they agreed to own him as their overlord if he would leave them free in the Danelaw, and to that he consented. And Alfred taught the Saxons to build ships for fighting, and to set up fenced cities, and trained them for war, and sent also for wise men from overseas to teach them the arts of peace.

After his day there was more or less peace between the English and the Danes in England for a hundred years. But then there came more Danes, who conquered England. And after the rule of the great Danish king Canute and his two sons, the house of Alfred was restored to the throne. But the king, Edward the Confessor, loved the lords of Normandy, which is in the north of France; and Duke William of Normandy said that both he and the great Earl Harold promised that when Edward died Duke William should be king. But the English people made Harold king. Therefore, Duke William gathered a mighty army, and invaded England, and fought with King Harold at the battle of Hastings, and slew him. Then the English people owned Duke William for their lord.

THE NORMAN CONQUEROR WHOSE VICTORY PROVED GOOD FOR ENGLAND

Now, the new king, William the Conqueror, took away the lands of all who had fought against him, and gave them to his own followers from Normandy. And when the English folk rose up against him, he smote them utterly, being a very great soldier; and

again he took away the lands of those who had rebelled, and gave them to his Normans, so that the country was covered with the castles of the Norman captains, who were called barons, and they ruled harshly. Nevertheless, the conquest was good for England, because the Normans had more skill than the English both in statecraft and in the arts of war and of peace; and as the years went by Normans and English became one people, though not till a long time had passed. United so they became much mightier than ever the English would have been without the Normans.

This Duke William, who became King of England, was the greatest captain of his time, and smote his foes in many wars; and he was so strong that scarce any man could bend his bow. Yet though he was without mercy, it was his will to be just, and to compel his barons to do justice and right.

THE CONQUEROR'S SCHOLAR SON, AND THE GREAT GRIEF OF HIS LIFE

Moreover, William had a wise counselor, Lanfranc, whom he made Archbishop of Canterbury. And although in those days it was the way of great lords to set their king or overlord at defiance, none did so to William without being punished, so that the barons feared him, and for the most part did his bidding.

After him reigned his son William, called Rufus, or the Red, who wrought evil all his days; and after him another son Henry I, who was called Beauclerc, which means "fine scholar," because he loved learning and wisdom. In his latter years men called him also the Lion of Justice, for when there was peace in England he would not suffer his barons to wax proud and to do as they willed, but, like his father, the Conqueror, he held them in check with a strong hand. And he planned ways whereby it should be made easier for the common folk to come before the king's justices and have right done to them if the barons tried to oppress them. And though King Henry did this not so much because he cared for the common folk as because it would keep the barons from growing too powerful, yet it was the common folk who were the gainers. He had a son, Prince William, who should have followed him on the throne, but, as he was coming overseas in the White Ship, he was drowned; and Henry was sad ever after.

Now, since Prince William was dead, Henry would have had his daughter, who had wedded the German Emperor (and so is called the Empress Maud) to become queen after him. But the Council of the State chose her cousin, Stephen of Blois, and for years there was strife between Maud and Stephen.

THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET, WHICH GAVE ENGLAND 300 YEARS OF KINGS

But at last they agreed that Stephen should rule till he died, and then Maud's son, Henry of Anjou, should become king. This was Henry Plantagenet—for so the counts of Anjou called themselves; and Henry was the son of Maud and of Count Geoffrey, whom she had married after the emperor's death. They bore this name, which means "broom plant," because they wore a sprig of broom on their helmets. And for more than three hundred years every king of England was a Plantagenet.

The first Plantagenet king, Henry II, was a very great ruler. For besides being King of England he was lord of half France, though not its king, owning Normandy and Anjou, and having as his wife the Duchess of Aquitaine. Yet, though he had to be much in France, he set England in such good order as she had not known before for many a year. For he broke

down the power of the barons, who had paid no heed to the king in the days of Stephen, and he restored the wise rules that his grandfather, Henry I, had made, sending judges to all parts of the land so that all men could win the king's justice and protection against oppression.

But he had a grievous quarrel with his friend, Thomas à Becket, whom he set at the head of the churchmen in England, making him Archbishop of Canterbury. For Becket set himself to be the champion of the rights and privileges of the clergy; whereas the king would have taken some of these from them, seeing that they were set apart from other folk, and had milder laws, and were apt to make their own authority greater than the king's. So the king and the archbishop quarreled, yet after a long while they seemed to have become friends; till once again Becket stirred the wrath of Henry, who was very fierce and hot of temper, and he cried in his wrath: "Is there none who will rid me of this pestilent priest?" Whereupon four knights, who hated Becket, made haste to Canterbury, and slew the archbishop in his own cathedral. And Henry repented bitterly, and did penance; and because of that crime he dared no longer resist the claims Becket had made.

THE BITTER END OF HENRY II AND THE WARS OF EDWARD

Now Henry's later years were bitter, because his sons rose up against him, and he died warring against them. And after him Richard the Lion-Heart was king; but he saw little of England, for he was warring in Palestine against the Sultan Saladin, to win the Holy Sepulcher from the followers of the Prophet Mohammed. And after him was his brother John, who wrought evil all his days. And after John, in whose reign the barons won for the people of England the rights that made her a free nation, was his son Henry, who was king for more than fifty years. And after him came the great king Edward, who was called Longshanks by reason of his great limbs, and also the Hammer of the Scots, because of his Scottish wars. Edward was a great warrior, being both a well-skilled leader of armies and of great prowess in single combat. He conquered the Welsh, a small, though valiant people, and he conquered Scotland; yet, though he could overthrow her armies, she rose against him again and again, and would have none of the English yoke, which Scotland cast off for good and all in the time of his unhappy son Edward II.

THE GREAT WORK DONE FOR THE NATION BY EDWARD THE FIRST

However, the glory of Edward lay not in his conquests, for they came to little in the end, but his glory lay in this—that he resolved so to order the government of the country that the barons and the commons should each of them have so much voice in it that neither clergy nor barons could play the tyrant; and, besides making many good laws, he gave the Parliament of England the form which was scarcely changed for five hundred years. And so in some sort he made complete the work that Henry II had done for England, the work that the barons had done in the time of John, and the work that his own father, Henry III had done.

When he died, his son, Edward II, became king, but his days were troubled and after twenty years he was dethroned and murdered; and his son, Edward III, became king in his turn, and he ruled for fifty years. In his day he was the most famous soldier in Christendom; and the English archers won renown for the victories which they gained under his leadership

and that of his son, Edward, the Black Prince, over the chivalry of France. Most glorious of those victories was the battle of Cressy, where the English yeomen and English knights utterly overthrew five times their own number of Frenchmen. These wars were fought because Edward made claim that he was the true heir to the crown of France; but, in truth, what he wished for was to have his dukedoms in France freed from the overlordship of the French king.

How Edward III won new lands for England and lost them again

In those wars he took the French town of Calais. Yet though these great deeds of arms brought fame and glory, and seemed for a time likely to win all France for King Edward, they brought little gain to England in the end; for, long before he was an old man, Edward became feeble and in his later years all was lost that had been won.

Trouble was the lot of his grandson, Richard II, who followed him on the throne; for the Black Prince died before his father. And after a time Richard's cousin Henry put him from the throne, and made himself king with the consent of the people. Yet he, too, had little peace; and in after days men said that he had much grief from the wild doings of his son Henry, who after him became King Henry V.

How Henry V marched into France and married the king's daughter

For it was told of this prince that in his youth he and his boon companions would play the part of highwaymen and other mad pranks. But however wild the prince may have been when he became king he set to work in grim earnest. For somehow he made himself believe that he had a right to the crown of France, which his great-grandfather, Edward III, had claimed, and all Englishmen were ready to fight the French. So they invaded Normandy, and captured the town of Harfleur.

But seeing that he could not at once conquer France, Edward did not come back with his forces to England, but marched through Normandy towards Calais, with but a few thousand soldiers. But by this time the French had gathered a great host, and they stayed the English king's march at Agincourt. But Henry won there a victory even more wonderful than Cressy, and thereafter he gathered a fresh army in England and came back to France, and set himself to conquer all the northern part of the land step by step, until presently the French king made a treaty with him that Henry should wed his daughter Catherine, and should be heir to his throne.

The nation's mourning for Henry V and the coming of the Tudors

But the king's son would not consent, nor many of the French nobles and the war did not end. Now, whether Henry would have conquered all France, making one dominion of France and England, and would then have led great armies to a Holy War against the Turk, as he desired, none can tell; for he died, being yet a young man, having reigned only nine years. And all England mourned for him, and cherished his memory as the pattern of true knighthood, as may be seen by the story of him which Shakespeare told in his plays, nearly two hundred years later.

But when Henry died, no lesser man than he could achieve the conquest of France. And great troubles came upon England, and the strife for the crown called the War of the Roses.

The man who ended these troubles, and once more gave to England order and firm rule, was another Henry, the Seventh, being the first king of the House of Tudor, and of kin to the

HENRY VIII DISMISSING CARDINAL WOLSEY

Henry VIII was a despotic king who allowed nothing to stand between him and his desires. When Cardinal Wolsey could not persuade the Pope to annul Henry's marriage with Queen Catherine, the king cast his minister from power. When Wolsey knew that he had lost the king's favor, he staked everything on a final interview. Henry acted at first as though he were going to receive Wolsey back into favor, but at last the cardinal was dismissed coldly, and never saw the king again.

HENRY THE FIFTH AND GEORGE THE THIRD

When Henry V, who won the great battle of Agincourt, at last made peace with the French, one of the conditions was that he should marry the French king's daughter, Catherine. Here we see Henry wooing the French princess. Shakespeare, in his p ay of Henry V, has given an amusing account of the courtship, in which neither Henry nor Catherine understood the language of the other, but used Catherine's maid as an interpreter.

George III reigned for sixty years, longer than any other king of England and in the early part of his reign he did much harm by his obstinacy and his wrong ideas of how a king should rule. But he was an honest man, and showed courage and resolution in the dangers that beset his kingdom. Here we see him with his sons in Hyde Park, reviewing the Honorable Artillery Company, one of the o dest volunteer regiments.

House of Lancaster, which began with Henry IV. He overthrew the usurper Richard III, who had murdered the king his nephew, and when he had wedded the princess Elizabeth, who was by right the heiress of the throne of England, the white rose of York and the red rose of Lancaster were united. Nevertheless, for many years there were endless plots against him, and Henry had a hard task enough to put down the power of the nobles which had so grown that some of them could lead an army of retainers to battle, and make the kingdoms of Europe pay heed to the will of England.

THE MAGNIFICENCE OF HENRY VIII, AND HIS FRIEND CARDINAL WOLSEY

Yet he did these things not by war, but by craft, and he was like the Roman emperor Vespasian in his carefulness of money, and his carelessness whether he gathered it by fair means or foul, so that the treasury was well plenished. In this, too, he was like Vespasian, that he had no wish to shed the blood of his enemies; but, though he spared their lives he took their goods. And when he died there was none in the land strong enough to oppose his son Henry, and the townsfolk and the merchants were prosperous, and the kings of France and Spain and the German Emperor were all eager for the friendship of England.

Now, in the first years of his reign, Henry VIII was a splendid young king, skilled in all sports, yet skilled also in letters, and loving all magnificence. Men saw that he was ambitious and wished to be a famous king; yet he seemed to leave all statecraft to his minister, Cardinal Wolsey, and to care more to make a mighty display when he met the King of France at the famous "Field of the Cloth of Gold" than about the political plans of the cardinal. Yet the cardinal himself knew very well that he must satisfy his master that his plans were wise, and that if he crossed the king's will he would be cast off.

And so it happened. For the king was minded to take a new wife in place of his queen, Catherine of Aragon, giving for his reason that his marriage with her was not lawful, seeing she had first been the wife of his brother Arthur, who died young, although the Pope had granted what was called a dispensation, giving leave for the marriage. Now, however, there was another Pope, and Henry would have him say that the old Pope had done wrong. But the new Pope was in fear of the Emperor Charles V, who was nephew of Queen Catherine, so he dared not do as the king desired. And because Wolsey could not persuade the Pope, Henry cast him from power, so that he died not long afterwards, repenting, as he said, that in his faithful service to the king he had forgotten to serve the King of kings.

HOW HENRY CARED FOR NOTHING MORE THAN FOR HIS OWN PLEASURE

Now Henry was very angry with the Pope. And in those days Martin Luther had risen up with his new teaching that the Pope was an ordinary man, and not the oracle of God, and that men should seek God not through priests, but through the Word of God. Henry held Luther's new doctrines to be for the most part false; but, as the Pope would not give him his will, he was ready enough to say that England had no need of the Pope, and that the laws of the Church should no longer prevail in England unless they agreed with the king's law.

So Henry defied the Pope, and permitted no more money to be paid to him as had been done for centuries; and he put away his wife Catherine, and took the new wife whom he desired, Anne Boleyn, who became the mother of Queen Elizabeth. Nor was Henry

content to break away from Rome; for he dealt very hardly with the churchman in England, saying that they taught men to obey the laws of the Church and the Pope rather than the king's laws, and that they did many other evil deeds. Therefore he took away their lands, and overthrew the religious houses. And this also is remembered of Henry, that he married six wives, of whom he put away two and cut off the heads of two more; and one died soon after the birth of a son, who became King Edward VI. But the last wife kept the king's good graces until he died. And this is true of Henry, that he suffered nothing to stand between him and his pleasure, sparing neither foe nor faithful servant; but though his ways were those of a tyrant, yet many people think he was wise, in bringing about the separation of the Church of England.

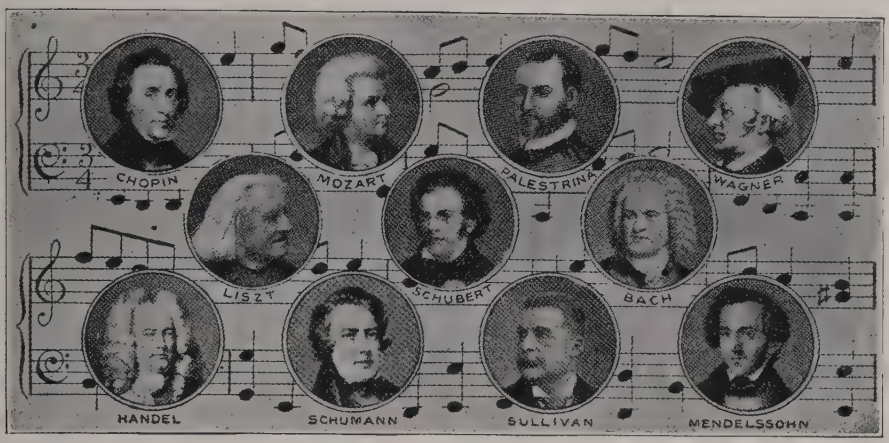
A DUTCHMAN WHO RULED ENGLAND WHEN THE PEOPLE DROVE OUT THE STUARTS

Now we shall not here speak of the kings who came after Henry for a hundred and forty years; for of those kings there was none who helped to make England greater. But the next king of whom we have to tell was not an Englishman at all, though his mother and his wife were both of them English princesses, but a Dutchman, William of Orange. He was made King of England because the people were weary of the Stuart king, James II, who sought to rule the country after his own will, and to restore the Catholic religion, and was for this compelled to give up his throne and leave the country. But the daughter of James, who was William's wife, was a Protestant, and he was the head of the Protestant state of Holland, against which the Catholic king, Louis XIV of France, the cousin and friend of King James, was making war. So the English asked William to be their king in place of James, if he would promise to pay heed to the liberties of the people and the rights of Parliament. And William, though a foreigner, proved himself a wise and just man.

HOW A MOLEHILL ROBBED A KINGDOM OF ITS KING

And England owed it to him first that she was not rent in twain by civil strife; and, second, that the might of the French king was held in check. For Louis wished to bring back King James to the throne; and indeed would have made England serve his will as he had done in the days of Charles II. King William died from the injury he received by a fall from his horse, which stumbled over a molehill.

George III, the grandson of George II, was king for sixty years: and for the first twenty years he did nothing but harm. But a time came when the nation again found itself fighting for life and liberty against France, when the people were filled with fear that their country was going to be invaded by the man who had made all Europe bow to his will, and had left death and ruin everywhere behind him; and in this one thing King George served her well, that through many dangers he never lost courage, but was resolute, not only to fight for England, but also to aid those peoples in Europe who had risen up to resist the dominion of the mighty Emperor of the French, Napoleon Bonaparte.

And so, though "Farmer George," as men called him, did many things that were not wise, yet, because he was an honest and good man, who wished to do what he believed to be right at all costs, and because in the hour of England's peril he never faltered, his name is remembered among England's kings under whom the nation grew to greatness.

GREAT COMPOSERS OF MUSIC

THERE were really no great composers of music until within the last three or four hundred years. The first composer treated seriously by the musical historians was Palestrina, who died in 1594. He wrote a Mass—that is, a musical setting of the Roman Catholic Church service—which the Pope thought so fine that he ordered it to be taken as the pattern for all the future music of the Church. But Palestrina's music never took hold of the people. The first great composer whose music did that was George Frederick Handel.

Handel was a German, born at a little town called Halle, in 1685. His father was one of those seventeenth-century barbers who were at the same time doctors and dentists. And he had made up his mind that his son should be brought up in the profession of the law. But music was in the boy's blood, and nothing would check his ambition to be a composer. He smuggled a rickety spinet—an old-fashioned kind of piano—up to the attic where he slept, and at night, when all the others were in bed, he played and played, until he mastered the instrument. His father soon realized that it was no use keeping him back from his desire, so he procured him good teachers, and did everything that he possibly could to help him forward in his chosen art.

In time Handel began to compose big works, mostly operas. But the operas had no great run on the Continent, so he came to London and settled down there. For years he did almost nothing but write operas, and he generally rented a theater of his own. He had some successes, but he had more failures; and, in fact, was twice bankrupt over his opera business. Yet, if Handel had not failed with his operas, we should never have had those grand oratorios by which we know him now, for he turned to oratorio when he had exhausted himself with opera. An oratorio is a long sacred composition for voices, the words nearly always taken from the Bible.

Somebody has said of Handel that he set the Bible to music. And he did very nearly. He wrote more than twenty oratorios, though not more than three or four of them are performed today. But one alone, of the three or four, would have been

quite enough to immortalize the name of Handel; for it is to Handel that we owe "The Messiah," heard all over the country every Christmas season. Just as we think of "Paradise Lost" when we think of Milton, so it is "The Messiah" that comes to our minds when we think of Handel. And he wrote it—this long work, which takes more than two hours to sing—wrote it, choruses, solos, accompaniments, and everything, in twenty-three days!

A GREAT GERMAN COMPOSER WHO IS BURIED IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Of course, he wrote other things that we like to remember besides his oratorios. Every young pianist plays his "Harmonious Blacksmith," for instance, and violinists and singers often have his name in their programmes. Sometimes, too, if we go to an organ recital, we shall hear a concerto of his. But, after all, he is the great composer of oratorio, with only Mendelssohn as a faint rival. He was a naturalized Englishman, and when he died, in 1759, they laid him beside the great men and women in Westminster Abbey, where we may see a monument representing him in the act of writing, "I know that my Redeemer liveth" for "The Messiah." We may also see his house in Hanover Square. He had a fiery temper, used "bad words" sometimes, and once threatened to throw a disobedient singer out of the window, but he was also pious and charitable.

HANDEL AND BACH, WHOSE MAGNIFICENT MUSIC WILL LIVE FOREVER

The greatest musician who was living in Handel's time was John Sebastian Bach. The two, Handel and Bach, are often spoken of as if they were a sort of Siamese twins of music. They were both Germans, and they were born within a month of each other. Both were fine organists; both gave great religious works to the musical world; and both were stricken blind in their later years. Beyond that, they did not have much in common. Handel never married; Bach was a quiet, stay-at-home man, who married twice and had a family of twenty sons and daughters. He was an organist first of all, and his organ compositions, after all these years, are the most perfect things of the kind ever produced; and there is not a serious-minded organist in the land who does not think of Bach when he is going to give an organ recital. Bach is to the organist what Shakespeare is to the actor.

In this connection there is a little story that may be told. Bach lived in the time of Frederick the Great. Now, Frederick was musical; he played the flute very well, and he took a notion to have a visit from Bach. So Bach, then an old man over sixty, set out on the journey. The king was at supper when his arrival was announced. Springing from the table, Frederick broke up the meal with the words, "Gentlemen, Bach is here!" and took Bach, weary as he was with travel, through the palace. Bach played upon the piano, and improvised upon a little melody given him by Frederick. Then, at the end, he told Frederick that he preferred the organ.

THE GRAND OLD MAN OF THE ORGAN, WHOSE INFLUENCE LIVES TODAY

That was what Bach preferred; and we think of him mainly as the grand old man of that noble instrument, which we are constantly hearing in the churches, and musicians call the "king of instruments." It is not likely that we shall often hear Bach outside the churches. But let us remember this: that Bach has had a great and lasting influence on all the great composers who have followed him. All looked up to him, and took, as it were, their

cue from his seriousness and his calm dignity. Beethoven was enthralled by his B minor Mass, which is occasionally performed. Mozart, by chance, listened to some of his compositions, and came away deeply impressed and wondering. Mendelssohn, Schumann, Wagner, Brahms—every one of them revered Bach as their godfather in music. So, while we may not hear very much of Bach's own music, we should never forget that we are as good as hearing it in the works of those who came after him. This wonderful genius died in 1750, nine years before Handel, who mourned for him as for a brother. So much for the first pair of great composers. Now we will take another pair—Mozart and Haydn. It has been remarked as strange that Bach and Handel, though they were born, both Germans, in the same year, and lived practically throughout the same period, never met. It was not so with Mozart and Haydn. They met often, and they were very fond of each other. It was Haydn who described Mozart as "the most extraordinary, original, and comprehensive musical genius ever known in this or any other nation."

That was a very generous tribute, especially as musicians are so often extremely jealous of each other. We will deal with Haydn first, for he was called "Papa" Haydn, so much did they love him in his own day. He was the father of most of the instrumental forms of music which are now regarded as fixed forms—the symphony, the sonata, the string quartette, and the like. That is to say, he wrote works in these departments which every composer feels to be models.

THE POOR PEASANT BOY WHO BECAME THE FATHER OF MODERN MUSIC

That, in itself, was a notable thing to achieve. And it was particularly notable for a poor boy who had to go out into the world to earn his own living at an age when boys nowadays are at school, enjoying their games, if not their lessons. The parents of this great composer were humble Austrian peasants, and they were living in a wretched farmhouse with a barn attached when he was born in 1732.

But Haydn had at any rate one advantage; his musical abilities, discovered in early childhood, were not thwarted by his father. The father arranged for the training of his young prodigy, and the young prodigy was taught his crotchets and quavers with many floggings when things went wrong. He developed a good voice, and so was sent to sing in the choir of Vienna Cathedral. But the day came when his voice "broke," and he was of no more use to the choirmaster, who might have kept him resting until his voice "set;" but Haydn had displeased him. One day he played a boyish prank on a fellow-singer and he was dismissed from the choir and left to provide for himself as best he could.

You would not like to hear of all the hardships he endured for long after this. He became a great singing teacher's servant; he played the violin at dances and even in the streets!

THE HAPPY DAYS OF HAYDN'S LIFE AND HOW HE WROTE HIS BEST MUSIC

But he was perfecting himself in composition all the time; and a set of sonatas that he wrote took the fancy of a wealthy countess, who procured him a remunerative engagement, and introduced him to pupils who paid well. Henceforward he had no trouble in getting on. In 1760 he married, not very happily, and a year later he entered the service of the Esterhazys, one of the richest Austrian families of the time. Great families kept a

Like most of the great composers, Haydn was very poor in his young days and wandered about the streets of Vienna playing the violin to make a very precarious living. But later he became rich and famous and it was in England that his greatness was first recognized. Here we see him on his way to England watching and listening to a storm to which he afterward gave realistic expression in his oratorios the "Creation" and the "Seasons."

Handel giving a concert on the Thames for George I of England

permanent band of their own in those days, and Haydn was the Esterhazys' bandmaster. The post gave him a good salary and a comfortable home, and he went on with his composition under favorable conditions.

In 1790, the Esterhazy orchestra was disbanded. Then he came to London on a visit, and wrote for certain London concerts some of those symphonies which we still delight to hear. Altogether he wrote about 150 of these symphonies. Mozart saw him just before he left, and wept at the parting. "We shall never meet again," he said; and it proved true. In the music of church hymnals we find a tune called "Austria," with Haydn's name attached, and it was after hearing "God Save the King" in London that Haydn felt he must make a national tune of the same kind for his own beloved Austria.

THE TENDER HOMAGE OF ONE GREAT MUSICIAN FOR ANOTHER

He went home and wrote "God Preserve the Emperor," and then somebody made the air into the hymn-tune that has been sung so often.

His symphonies are still played by the leading orchestras; his piano music is in all the publishers' lists; and his oratorio of "The Creation" ranks as a good third to "The Messiah" and "Elijah." Haydn wrote "The Creation" in his old age, and it was in listening to a performance of it that he made his last appearance in public The excitement was too much for him. "Not I, but a power from above created that," he cried out at one point. They carried him away, and as he passed, Beethoven, who happened to be there, bent down and fervently kissed his hand and forehead. It was a pretty and a tender act of homage.

Haydn's music is for the most part bright and genial, and even sparkling with a dainty grace, and a constant melody, which was his most marked characteristic. Young people must always love Haydn and his music.

THE WONDER OF MOZART'S GENIUS AND HOW HE COMPOSED MUSIC AT FIVE

Young people should take a special interest in Mozart, for Mozart was a distinguished musician at a more tender age than any of the other great composers. A young man once asked Mozart to tell him how to compose. The gentle Wolfgang Amadeus, for these were his Christian names, made answer that the questioner was too young to be thinking of such a serious occupation. "But you were much younger when you began," said the aspirant. "Ah, yes, that is true," replied Mozart, with a smile; "but then, you see, I did not ask anybody how to compose." Mozart was born in the city of Salzburg, in 1756, and he was only five when he composed a minuet and trio that boys and girls of much maturer age might play with some effect today.

His father was a good musician, specially expert as a violinist, and Wolfgang had a sister, Maria Anna, who, at first, showed nearly as much talent as himself. Hence they all—the father and the two children—started on a musical tour, in the course of which Mozart played before the Empress Maria Theresa, and romped with the little princess who afterwards became Queen of France—the unfortunate Marie Antoinette. These great ladies used to take him on their knee, and kiss him, and shower gold upon him.

HOW MOZART BECAME POOR AND DANCED TO KEEP WARM

It was Mozart's happiest time, for from the day that he began life in earnest as a married man—that was in 1782—the wolf of poverty was never away from his door. He composed

incessantly, but even successful composition did not pay then as it does now, and the butcher and the baker were often worrying poor Mozart for a settlement of their accounts. A friend called one winter day, and found Mozart and his wife waltzing round the room. "We were cold," they said, "and we have no wood to make a fire." Let us think of that, and then think of the glorious works that Mozart produced under such depressing conditions. He left 769 compositions in all, and he was still under forty when he died.

In his own day he was regarded chiefly as a composer of opera. He wrote forty-nine symphonies, and conductors still like to have some of these played, particularly the so-called "Jupiter" symphony, and one in G minor, which has been described as his "tenderest and daintiest instrumental composition." All his works are full of charming melody, of which he had a fund only equaled by Haydn.

THE STORMY DAY WHEN MOZART WAS LAID IN AN UNKNOWN GRAVE

Mozart's end was very sad. He was taken ill in 1791, and during his illness he wrote a famous "Requiem," a sort of funeral song, which he had sung around his death-bed, to hear its effect. Then, on his funeral day, a great storm arose, and only the undertaker and his men went to the cemetery to see him buried. He died so poor that his remains had to be put into a pauper's grave, where many other coffins lay. Nobody looked near the grave for many years, and then it was found that nobody could point it out. So Mozart's monument in Vienna cemetery stands over an empty grave, while the composer's dust reposes no one knows where. It is pathetic to think of such an end of a great man.

There was another great composer who went through very much the same sufferings, the same persecutions and fate as Mozart. His name was Franz Schubert. "My music is the product of my genius and my misery," Schubert said. It could hardly be otherwise. His people were poor, and he had eighteen brothers and sisters, from which we may judge that no special attention was given to his education and upbringing. But, just as "truth will out," so will genius. Schubert entered upon music as a prince enters on his dominions. When they began to teach him music, they found that somehow he had learned the rudiments for himself.

He began to compose at eleven, and he consumed as much music-paper as would have made a small fortune for a stationer. He wrote all kinds of things at that time—overtures, symphonies, quartets, operettas, church music, piano music, and so on. But now we remember him almost solely for his songs, and for a few orchestral pieces.

GERMANY'S GREATEST SONG-WRITER AND HOW HE COMPOSED A FAMOUS SONG

He is Germany's greatest classical song writer. He composed more than 500 songs, but, of course, only a small number of these are popular. The one we are most likely to hear is "The Erl King," the poem written by Goethe.

One afternoon, Schubert took up a volume of Goethe's works lying on his table. He read "The Erl King." The rushing sound of the wind and the terrors of the enchanted forest were instantly changed for him into realities. Every line seemed to flow into strange, unearthly music as he read; and, seizing a pen, Schubert dashed down the song nearly as we know it. He had a great singer sing it, and then a Vienna music publisher, who had hitherto declined to have anything to

HOW HAYDN PLAYED WHILE VIENNA BURNED

A hundred years ago, when the French army was firing upon Vienna, two men sat listening to the guns that thundered through the streets. In a cellar sat Beethoven, vainly trying to shut out the sound of the guns from his ears, lest they should ruin his hearing and make him deaf to music. In another room Haydn struggled up in his bed, and with his dying fingers played the Austrian national anthem to try to drown the noise of the enemy's fire. It is a wonderful picture that this tale brings to our minds—the picture of two of the world's great musicians, whose music will live forever, sitting, while life and power were ebbing from them—for Beethoven did become deaf, and Haydn died—helpless in the face of the great destroyer of mankind, the cruel curse of war.

do with his songs, asked to have it. He paid Schubert a very small sum, though in a few months the publisher made $400 out of it. That was the way with Schubert all along. Some of his finest songs were sold for the price of a meal. Grinding poverty, slights, insults, disappointments innumerable—that was Schubert's portion. He died in 1828, before he was quite thirty-two, and they laid him to rest near Beethoven, at whose deathbed he had shed tears, with this inscription on his tombstone: "Music buried here a rich possession and yet fairer hopes."

THE MIGHTY BEETHOVEN, WHO WAS TOO DEAF TO HEAR HIS OWN MUSIC

We have still to speak of Beethoven. Recall Haydn for a moment. When Haydn was dying in Vienna, in 1809, the French were bombarding the town. Haydn's servants were terrified, but Haydn took it all very calmly. He asked to be lifted from his bed to the piano, and when he had got seated he played his own "Austrian Hymn" three times over, while the guns were thundering outside.

Now, at that very moment there was another composer in Vienna, crouching in a cellar, with cotton-wool stuffed in his ears. That composer was the mighty Beethoven. His hearing had begun to go, and he was frightened that the sound of the explosions would still further endanger it. Think of a musician being deaf! You might as well think of a painter being blind! Yet Beethoven, in some respects the greatest composer who ever lived, became almost totally deaf.

This infliction embittered his life and its effect upon his rugged and forceful character was to make him at times, surly and hard to deal with, but nevertheless this very deafness intensified his inner life and probably resulted in giving the world a greater "philosopher in tones" than he otherwise would have become.

Like Handel, Beethoven did not marry. Apart from his deafness he appears to have had a hard life which seems a grievous injustice since through his life so many others have been made better and more beautiful.

THE HOME OF A BOY WHO WAS TO MAKE A NOISE IN THE WORLD

Born in 1770, at Bonn, that pretty little university town on the Rhine, where they have preserved his birthplace just as it was, he had to work his way up in a home directed by a father who was a confirmed drunkard. The father was musical, and he had heard something about the triumphs of the Mozart children in Vienna and Paris and London, and he thought he would make money out of his own Louis. So he set him to work at the piano, and visitors would often see the child late at night shedding tears over the keyboard. By-and-by he was sent to Vienna to complete his musical education. There he met Mozart, who exclaimed, when he heard him play: "Pay attention to this youngster for he will yet make a noise in the world." We know now how true that prophecy was.

THE DEATH OF BEETHOVEN IN VIENNA AND THE BIRTH OF CHOPIN IN POLAND

Beethoven's works for the piano—particularly his sonatas — are the grandest things of their kind ever written. All the great pianists regard him as the king of composers for their instrument. And so, too, with the orchestra. Take away Beethoven's nine symphonies — the "immortal nine," they are sometimes called—and we should take away the backbone from the orchestra. He did not write very much for the voice, for he was essentially an instrumental composer; but he left one beautiful song

"Adelaide," and one great opera, "Fidelio." He passed away in March, 1827, and Vienna never before saw such a funeral as his, the crowds being so immense that the soldiers had to be called out to clear a passage for the procession.

There was another great composer for the piano, and he wrote the most poetical, dreamy, emotional things that we are ever likely to hear from that instrument. The name of this composer was Frederic Chopin. He was a Pole, born near Warsaw, in 1809, and his music seems to breathe the romance that we commonly associate with his nation. He was a consumptive, and died early, in 1849, after a long struggle with disease and weakness. There was something feminine about him, but perhaps that is just why we find his music so refined, and so full of emotion and grace. He is really the poet of the piano—nothing strong and grand about him, like Beethoven—with an ethereal grace and charm such as we find in no one else.

MENDELSSOHN, A GENIUS WHO WAS BORN TO WEALTH AND HAPPINESS

Another great composer who met him in 1834 gave him the significant pet name of "Chopinetto." This was Mendelssohn, a German, born the same year as Chopin himself, who said of one of his pieces, "it is so perfectly beautiful that I could go on forever playing it." One might say the same of several of Mendelssohn's own compositions. He was born to wealth and happy worldly circumstance, and never had to struggle with poverty or other ills. So his music is bright and genial, clever and pure, manly and refined. His "Songs Without Words" are among the classics of the piano; and his oratorio "The Elijah" ranks in popularity next to "The Messiah." It was written especially for the Birmingham Musical Festival—for Mendelssohn had a great affection for the English people, and liked London better than Berlin or Leipzig. He had a short life, but his early death, in 1849, seems to have been hastened by grief at the loss of a favorite sister.

A composer of a very different type was Robert Schumann, born at Zwickau, in Saxony, in 1810, and though he died at forty-six of a mental malady, his refined and poetic musical creations have left an indelible impress upon all art. His nature was too sensitive to stand contact with jarring circumstances and personalities and therefore he was a very reserved and taciturn man in everything except his music; in music his true poet's nature expressed itself freely and is marked by love, hope and sunshine as well as by a vein of romantic melancholy.

Schumann was both a good and a gifted man; a genuine poet, a delightful writer, a noted critic. He was an exemplary son and as a lover his faithfulness and devotion to Clara Wieck, who later became his wife, is known the world over. Proof of his love for children is easily found in his writing his famous "Album for the Young" when he was in greatest fame and highest in his creative powers. Schumann wanted to become a great pianist and to that end contrived a tiny machine of his own for exercising the third finger, which, we know, is not so supple as the other fingers. The machine hurt his hand, and he had to give up his ambition. But here again we have profited, for if Robert Schumann had been a great player, it is not likely that he would have been a great composer.

There is just one more very great name to be mentioned, and that is the name of Richard Wagner. Musical people have been making a lot of Wagner in recent years, perhaps in

WAGNER ENTERTAINING LISZT AND OTHER FRIENDS

return for the neglect he suffered during his life. He is not a composer in whom young folks can take a very deep interest, because he wrote little but those great musical dramas upon which he prided himself so much, "Lohengrin," "Tannhäuser," "The Meistersingers," "The Flying Dutchman," "Tristan and Isolde," and the rest. He had an idea of his own about opera, and it was this—that the words are of equal importance with the music.

THE GREAT STORIES THAT WAGNER SET TO MUSIC

The older opera composers thought the music was everything, and the words of their operas were often silly to the verge of nonsense. Wagner changed all that, and if we read the words of his operas, we may enjoy the mere story perhaps almost as well as the music. He liked to deal with old German myths and legends, and we find his tales of Lohengrin and Tristan and Tannhäuser exceedingly interesting. He, too, was a German. He was born at Leipzig, in 1813, and had a very troubled career until the crazy king Ludwig of Bavaria, who was not crazy about music, took him up and gave him money and a home, which saved him to the world. He died in 1883, and he is buried at Bayreuth, where his home was, and where he had erected a specially constructed theater for the performance of his works.

Now we may turn to our greatest and most beloved American composer —Edward Alexander MacDowell, born in New York City in 1861. While Mr. MacDowell may not as yet be classed as one of the world's great composers, such as those already spoken of, still he ranks among the foremost today and we believe the individuality and sheer beauty of his tone-pictures will give him a place among the Immortals of Art.

Edward MacDowell came from Irish-Scotch forbears and his music

RICHARD WAGNER AND THE CHILDREN OF HIS MARVELOUS BRAIN

is full of their love for and intimacy with Nature in all its most romantic and strengthening forms. He was an American boy of wide interests and varied talents. He drew and painted as well as he played the piano and when his mother took him to Paris to continue his studies in piano and composition, his sketching was so promising that he was offered a three years free scholarship in the Beaux Arts. But young Edward was not to be turned aside from music and he, himself, decided to refuse this opportunity and to pursue a musician's career. His work as pianist and composer was recognized in America even before his return in 1888, and when he settled in Boston he found himself already established in the minds and hearts of the American people. In 1896 he accepted the offer to occupy the Chair of Music at Columbia University which he most successfully filled, until in 1904 he resigned so that he might devote all his time to composing.

While studying and teaching abroad he met and married an American lady who until his death in New York in 1908, has been what Clara Schumann was to Robert, her husband, his highest inspiration and constant help. MacDowell's life and music reflects the serenity and elevation of his home life and to this day his ideas and ideals for American boys and girls who love "the beautiful" and wish to study art in any of its manifestations are being practically applied and worked out at Peterboro, N. H., where upon Mr. MacDowell's farm talented students in dancing, painting, sculpture and music may live at moderate cost, and in an inspiring atmosphere work out their highest creative thoughts. Such poetic pieces as "New England Idylles," "Fireside Tales," and "Woodland Sketches" should be known to every young music lover.

Sir Arthur Sullivan's Famous Operas, and Other Composers

In Sullivan's delightful works from "The Sorcerer" and "H.M.S. Pinafore," on to "The Gondoliers" and "Utopia, Ltd.," Sullivan successfully established something altogether new in British musical art.

There are so many more composers to write about, when one begins to go over the names. There is Gounod, for example, the Frenchman who gave us the always popular opera of "Faust." There is Rossini, the Italian who gave us "William Tell" and the world-famous "Barber of Seville," and other operas.

Great Composers Who Were Not for One Age But for All Time

Verdi, too, we ought to remember for his "Il Trovatore" and "Aïda," and much later works of a more masterly kind. And Weber, also, for his "Der Freischütz," and Meyerbeer for his "Les Huguenots," and Donizetti for his "Lucia," and Bellini for his "La Sonnambula," and Balfe for his ever fresh and ever welcome "Bohemian Girl."

Fränz Liszt, Pianist, Composer and Friend of Wagner

We ought to speak of Liszt, the greatest of all the great pianist composers; and of Tschaikowsky, the Russian master, whose "Pathetic" symphony is now as familiar as anything of Beethoven's; and of Brahms though his music requires much study and pondering, and is not very suitable for young people; and of Strauss, and of Sir Edward Elgar, and of a great many more. Think of Bizet and his "Carmen," of Mascagni and his "Cavalleria Rusticana," of Leoncavallo and his "Pagliacci." And there are a host of others, but of these, the really great, we may safely say, in the words of Shakespeare, that they are "not for an age, but for all time."

LEADERS IN THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

ABOUT 130 years ago there were very great troubles in the kingdom of France, and violent changes took place. The French monarchy was turned into a republic, so that there was no longer a king at the head of affairs, because it was said that every country ought to be ruled according to the will of the whole people who live in it, and not according to the wishes of one man or of the few who have wealth and power. After all, it was not very long before the French found themselves again being ruled by the will of one man, who became the Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte.

But the changes which took place before that make up the story of what is called the French Revolution. And some of these changes in the government of the country and the life of the people have continued to the present time in France itself, and some have been adopted since that time into other countries of Europe.

Now we are going to learn something about the men and women who made this French Revolution, or tried to prevent it; but we shall not be able to understand much about them unless we first of all try to imagine the state of things which made people so determined to have a change that they allowed all sorts of wicked and terrible things to be done rather than stay as they were. In England there was a free government—that is, the people ruled through the Parliament, and the king and the ministers had to obey the law like everyone else. But in France the king and his ministers could do very nearly as they liked, so long as they did not interfere with the privileges of the clergy or the nobles.

But the common people suffered grievously by reason of these very privileges; for in the country places the peasants were almost the slaves of the great landowners, who were called the seigneurs. And in nearly all the land, except in Brittany and the district called La Vendée, the seigneurs cared nothing for the needs or the sufferings of the peasants; and although the seigneurs and the clergy had to pay no taxes, the peasants were compelled to pay heavy taxes to the State and feudal dues to the seigneurs, which meant sometimes money and sometimes the produce of their lands. Besides all this, they had to labor for the seigneurs without pay

—all of which was very unlike anything that had been known in Great Britain for more than 400 years. There were many people who for a long time past had been saying that all this was very wrong, and had been pointing out that people in England were much more happy and prosperous, and among these we may try to remember the names of Voltaire and Diderot. But these two men did not arouse so much excitement as Jean Jacques Rousseau, who came from Switzerland; for he had been brought up very harshly, and had led a strange, wandering, discontented sort of life, failing in everything at which he tried his hand, until he took to expressing his ideas in books, which at once made him famous.

The idea he had got hold of was that civilization was all wrong, and that people would be much happier living in what he called a natural state, with very little law or government at all. He said that people who were strong and rich had persuaded the rest to serve them by pretending that they would protect them, and so had got the rulership into their own hands, and used it for their own advantage. In this way the poorer classes were robbed of their natural rights.

ROUSSEAU, WHO TAUGHT THAT THE WILL OF THE PEOPLE SHOULD TRIUMPH

He maintained that everybody ought to make a new agreement or social contract, according to which everything should be settled by the will of the people; and that there should be no more kings or seigneurs or people who had privileges, but everything should be arranged in the way that the mass of the people thought best for themselves. This teaching of his about the rights of man and the social contract became very popular.

All the seigneurs belonged to a group of great families who kept themselves very much aloof from ordinary folk, and they are spoken of sometimes as the noblesse, and sometimes as the aristocrats. There were a few of the aristocrats who were very much in favor of some of the new ideas that Diderot or Voltaire or Rousseau were talking about. The king had not nearly enough money to carry on the government, especially as there had been great expenses, owing to a war with England, and he was advised that the only thing to be done was to summon an Assembly of the Three Estates—as the Noblesse, the Clergy, and the Commons were called—to consult them as to whether better arrangements could be made for governing the country. At this time there were two men who became very notable as leaders of the people, both of whom belonged to aristocratic families —one was Mirabeau, and the other was Lafayette.

THE TWO MEN WHO MIGHT HAVE SAVED FRANCE FROM THE GREAT TERROR

It was a very unfortunate thing that these two could not be friends, for what both of them wanted was to set up in France a government in which the voice of the people should be heard, and yet let the king and his ministers have a good deal of power—more, really, than the King of England had. Both of them had learned a good deal in England or in America; for Lafayette had come to America when he was only twenty, and had served under the great George Washington in the war which ended in the separation of the United States from England; so he had seen what Americans and Englishmen meant by freedom, and also how wise a man was General Washington.

Mirabeau had lived for some time in England, and had seen there how it

was possible for justice and law to rule everywhere without any oppression, and for both king and people to have a share in the government. But the least that either of them wanted would have made so great a change in France that the court and most of the aristocrats and the clergy would have nothing to say to them. And perhaps the saddest thing is that if King Louis had been a wiser man, those three working together might have made the French Revolution a peaceful affair, which would have set up in France a government not very unlike that of Great Britain.

THE GOOD KING LOUIS, WHO TRUSTED BAD COUNSELORS

Louis himself was a good man, who wished to do what was right and just. He was a brave man, too. But he was not wise, and he was not like some other kings who have had the wit to choose good advisers and trust them. Instead of that, he trusted people who gave him bad advice, and could see nothing but harm in the changes that Mirabeau and Lafayette demanded when the Three Estates were assembled in what was called the States-General and afterwards the National Assembly. It seemed to them that to take away the privileges of the noblesse and of the clergy would be robbery, and that the proper thing for the common people was not to govern but to obey their betters, among whom was Queen Marie Antoinette.

Mirabeau understood what was needed better than any other man in France. He was a man who lived a wild life privately, and was always greatly in debt, which set a good many people very much against him; and he was domineering, so that it was not easy to be friendly with him. But he was a wonderful orator; so that when the Assembly had come together bent on doing one thing, he could sometimes persuade it to agree to something altogether different. He would rouse people up to be enthusiastic when they were timid and hesitating; and in this way he had a great deal of power, though people were really afraid to trust him.

He was called the Tribune of the People, because he was so bold in demanding what he considered the people ought to have, and because he wanted the "privileged orders" to have their privileges taken away and to pay their share of the taxes.

HOW MIRABEAU TRIED TO BRING THE KING AND THE PEOPLE TOGETHER

But he saw, too, that many who had come to the Assembly had no idea as to what good government meant. The Assembly was not fit to be the real ruler; he wanted it to have power, but he knew that the only way to prevent terrible things happening was for him to become the real ruler himself. He wanted the people to trust him, and he wanted the king to trust him; but presently it came about that, while the king suspected him of being on the side of the people and against the crown, the people, and those who had most influence with them, suspected him of being really on the side of the crown against the people, when the thing he was striving to do was to unite crown and people for the good of both.

Several of the changes which Mirabeau wanted were made, but there was really no chance of bringing the king and the people into agreement after he died, which happened before the troubles had been going on for a very long time; for he tried to do such an immense amount of work that he wore himself out, and as soon as he fell ill, death overtook him very quickly.

Lafayette was a very different kind of person. He was a very popular and high-minded gentleman, who had won

THE ROYAL FAMILY CAPTURED BY THE MOB

With the fall of the Bastille the power of Louis XVI was gone. He determined to escape with his family from Paris by night but when the royal family reached Varennes they were recognized, stopped and brought back to Paris and carefully guarded in the Tuileries Palace. Led by fierce demagogues, the mob gradually became more violent, and on June 20, 1792, the anniversary of the oath in the tennis-court, forty thousand people marched to the Tuileries, burst into the palace, and insulted the royal family, as shown here. The queen is standing with her children behind a table.

The Girondins had been allied with the Jacobins, and together they overthrew the monarchy. But in the dreadful massacres of prisoners by the Jacobins the Girondins had no part, and, indeed, they had tried to prevent the bloodshed. Then, when the Jacobins who were all cruel and bloodthirsty ruffians, felt sufficiently powerful, they sent the Girondins to the scaffold in large numbers, as shown in this picture. The mob in Paris enjoyed seeing the victims go to execution, and mocked them as they went through the streets to the scaffold.

great praise as a soldier when he was fighting in America under George Washington. After the States-General had come together, and had been turned into the National Assembly, it began to be very difficult to keep order, because everyone was in a state of excitement.

LAFAYETTE, WHO TRIED TO KEEP ORDER IN PARIS AND DISPLEASED ALL PARTIES

So the better class of the citizens in Paris were enrolled, as soldiers in what was called the National Guard, to keep order; and Lafayette was made their general. He was very popular among them, and some people began to think that Lafayette meant to make himself the real master by the help of his soldiers, like Julius Cæsar in Rome or Oliver Cromwell in England. Besides, it was not very easy for the poor people to believe that so fine a gentleman as Lafayette cared much about them; and the noblesse hated him because they thought he had deserted their order; and the queen and court disliked him because they thought he was trying to become dictator. At last, when there was a great riot, and Lafayette had to order his soldiers to attack the mob, the common folk liked him less than ever, and he found that even his soldiers were only half inclined to obey him. He always wanted to check violence; but he could not sway men as Mirabeau could sway even those who did not trust him. So when more violent men got the upper hand, Lafayette no longer commanded the National Guard. Later on, when France declared war against Austria and Prussia, he was sent to command the French army; but Paris became so disturbed that he wanted to take the French troops back there, and when he found that he could not do so, he would not remain in command, but left the country.

HOW LAFAYETTE HELPED TO BRING BACK A KING TO FRANCE

As for what befell him afterwards, he was made prisoner by the Austrians, and after spending some years in prison he was set free. Later, he helped in the restoration of the Bourbon king; and, at the end of his long life, he helped in another little revolution when the Bourbons were turned out again and their cousin, Louis Philippe, was made king in their place.

Now let us look at the king and queen, whose story is so tragical. Louis always meant well, and would have been quite willing to grant much more power to the people, and to put an end to bad laws and customs; but the people round him were always persuading him that if he allowed one thing or another to be done, the king would never again have any power; and Louis thought that a king had no right to give up his power. So he could never make up his mind either to trust Mirabeau or any other of the leaders of the people, or, on the other hand, to take up his stand boldly as a monarch who was determined that his own will should be obeyed. In one way he was a brave man, for he had no fear of death, but he had not the other kind of courage which enables a man to resolve on a plan of action in which there are risks, and to carry it through in spite of dangers and difficulties.

HOW THE KING AND QUEEN TRIED TO ESCAPE FROM FRANCE IN THE DARK

Soon after the death of Mirabeau, the king and queen thought the best thing they could do was to take flight out of France, and then perhaps other kings would help them to recover their power, for the queen was the sister of the Emperor of Austria.

They made preparations secretly, and fled by night from Paris in a carriage, pretending to be just a gentleman and his wife. But at a place near

the frontier the king was recognized when he got out of his carriage, and they were stopped and sent back to Paris, where they were kept prisoners. Louis accepted the new constitution, or rules for governing the country, which the Assembly had prepared, and so he was still king. A new Assembly was called, but the king had no able men about him now whom he could make ministers, and the wisest men whom he tried would not do as he wished, or serve him if he did not do as they wished. At this time, because the Austrian Emperor and the King of Prussia threatened to interfere, Louis was forced to declare war against them. And at the same time the men who were called Jacobins, which was the name of a club or association to which they belonged were stirring up feeling against the monarchy, and Paris was getting very much excited.

A MOB THAT BROKE INTO A PALACE AND MADE THE KING WEAR A RED CAP

One day there was a great procession, which found its way into the royal palace of the Tuileries; and the King of France was obliged to set on his head the red cap of liberty. The queen, too, had to set one on the head of the little Prince Royal, the heir to the throne. No real harm was done that time; but when ill news came from the war, and the Prussians made a proclamation that Paris would be punished if the king were hurt, the people became furious. The royal palace was attacked by a mob thirsting for blood; the valiant Swiss Guards, who defended it stoutly, were cut to pieces. But the king and queen had fled with the rest of the royal family, and taken refuge with the Assembly. Then, later, there came another new Assembly, which was full of Jacobins, and of others who wanted a republic, who were called Girondins; and the new Assembly proclaimed that France was now a republic and the king and queen were merely citizens. And even before this the Jacobins had put to death a number of royalists, or supporters of the king, who had been thrown into prison, in what were called the September massacres. The next thing was to bring the king himself to trial, as Charles I had been tried in England just 140 years before. He was tried by the Assembly itself, and condemned to death.

A ROYAL PRINCE WHO VOTED FOR THE KING'S DEATH

Like Charles the First, Louis showed a royal dignity and fortitude. He was beheaded, not with an axe like Charles, but by an instrument called the guillotine, which had been brought into regular use in France by this time. King Louis's own cousin, Prince Philip of Orleans, was one of those who voted for his death.

The poor queen and her children remained prisoners for a long time. Marie Antoinette greatly deserves to be pitied, for though she had not always been wise, yet, when misfortune came upon her, she behaved with splendid courage; and it has always been counted among the wickedest deeds of the Jacobins that she, too, was sent to the guillotine by them, nearly a year after her husband.

She was not yet forty years old when she was slain; but the long, terrible months of anxiety had changed her so, that she seemed almost an old woman. When she became Queen of France, she was a beautiful and attractive girl who had never known what it was to have her will crossed, and had been taught to take it for granted that kings and queens have a right to go their own way, so that she always encouraged the king to resist. When she died, she died like a queen.

One woman is famous who was on the side of the Revolution. The party

who wanted a republic in France was divided in two, the Girondins and the Jacobins; and of these the Jacobins were much the fiercer. For the Girondins wanted a republic like that of ancient Rome; they did not wish to destroy for the pleasure of destroying.

THE NOBLE MADAME ROLAND WHO DIED BECAUSE SHE TRIED TO SAVE OTHERS

Among the Girondins, Madame Roland had great influence, and was accounted a woman both noble and wise. But after the king had been slain, the Jacobins got the upper hand altogether, and turned upon the Girondins, who wished to check bloodshed. Many of them were flung into prison, among whom was Madame Roland; and many were sent to the guillotine, though they had striven their hardest for liberty. And so it was that Madame Roland died in the same way as Marie Antoinette. There are three men who wrought the worst evils in the Revolution who are commonly named together and of these one came very near to being a great man. This was Danton—terrible, fearless, ruthless. It was he who caused the September massacres, because he thought that was the only way to make sure that there would not be a rising of the royalists, just at the moment when it seemed that foreign armies might be marching on Paris. And it was he who spoke these fierce words, when the kings of Europe seemed to be gathering their forces to crush the French Republic: "To the kings, we will fling down the head of a king as the gage of battle"—meaning that Louis should be beheaded. But after that he would have joined hands with the Girondins in checking bloodshed, but they would not join with him; so he held by the Jacobins, yet still strove to stay their bloodthirstiness, desiring only to slay when he thought it needful to make opponents afraid. And again the more cruel among them got the upper hand, and Danton, in his turn, was sent to the guillotine.

The second of the three was Marat, who called himself the "friend of the people," foul of speech, craving for blood, ever urging death for the aristocrats. He did not die by the guillotine, for his wickedness so stirred the heart of a girl named Charlotte Corday that she thought it was her mission to free the world from such a monster. So she came to Paris, and, being admitted to speak with him, drew a dagger and slew him; for which deed she, too, gave up her life under the guillotine.

The third was for a time the most powerful of them all. This was Maximilian Robespierre, a little, ordinary looking man, who would have been simply a respectable citizen if he had remained in private life. But he had one idea in his head which he was quite determined to carry out. This was that the will of what he called the "Sovereign People" must rule, and the way to bring that about was to destroy everything that could possibly stand in the way—kings or aristocrats, Girondins or Jacobins, men or women, young or old. He got all the power in his own hands, till at last, week after week, the guillotine was killing fifty people every day.

THE END OF THE TERROR AND THE DEATH OF ROBESPIERRE

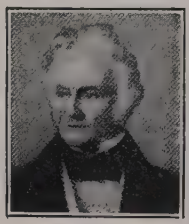
Then even his own supporters grew weary, and turned upon him; and he, too, went to the guillotine. When his head fell, those who stood by shouted for joy. With his death, the Reign of Terror came to an end, and the ruling of the French Republic passed into the hands of a group of people called the Directory. Here in after time Napoleon Bonaparte first served the Republic, and then overthrew it and made himself emperor.

BRAVE MEN WHO WENT IN QUEST OF THE POLES

Abruzzi

Peary

Nansen



Parry

The race of men of all nations for the North Pole.

Sir John Franklin

Jackson

Hudson

Captain Cook

Sir James Ross

Scott

Amundsen

Shackleton

MAKING THE BEST OF THINGS—HOW THE WIND HELPED THE EXPLORERS ALONG SOMETIMES

CONQUERORS OF THE POLES

MAN has ever shown a strong desire to find out all he can about the wide world on which he lives, and especially about its hidden chambers. As we look at a globe or a map, and think over the stories of the countries, we realize how gradually the oceans and continents—nay, the very shape of the world—came into view for mankind. In our memory rises the old legend of the exploring journey of Hercules round the Mediterranean; the wonderful story of Marco Polo in the East; of Columbus and his followers in the West; of the grand efforts of pioneers in Central Asia, Africa, and America, all opening up chamber after chamber in our great world-home.

THE SPIRIT OF DISCOVERY

Those who know tell us that there is a joy that words cannot express given to the intrepid openers of new continents, and to those who first see new shores and oceans and show them to others.

Much as has been done in exploring the hidden parts of the earth, there are still secrets to find out in the vast crystal chambers at the extreme north and south of our world. "As wide as the Poles apart" is a saying we have to express great distance, for the Poles are the ends of the imaginary line running right through the earth, on which it is said to turn on its everlasting journey round the sun—as a wheel turns on its axle.

We must gather together, too, all that we know of snow and ice, of intense cold, of the difficulties of crossing the snow-fields and glaciers of the Alps and Himalayas, the mountains of Tibet and Alaska, and we must also recall the deep quiet and loneliness of these parts of the world. Then, putting all these snowy regions of the world together, and multiplying their size, their coldness, and their solitude many times over, we shall begin to have some idea of the icy regions that surround the Poles, each larger in size than the whole of the United States.

Now, if we place a globe or map of the world before us, so that we look directly down on these polar regions in turn, we shall see that there is a very great difference between them. We shall see at a glance that, on the north, the great continents of Eurasia and America stretch far up within the limits of the arctic circle, and that there are waterways passing each side of the immense island of Greenland, and by the Bering Strait into a huge polar sea studded with numerous islands.

THE LONG CENTURIES OF SOLITUDE IN WHICH THE SOUTHERN WORLD WAS LOST

When we turn to the south, we see a great difference. The lands of the southern half of the world, New Zealand, Australia, Africa and South America, all point to the antarctic regions, but are separated from them by thousands of miles of open sea, which forever surges round what is believed to be a vast polar continent, covered deep with ice like Greenland. No exploring ship ever crossed the equator southwards till 1470, so the great sea and the hidden antarctic regions lay through the centuries in absolute solitude.

Not so the north polar region. Nations particularly fond of daring adventure, such as the Norsemen, the Dutch, the British, all living within easy reach of the most approachable gate in the icy wall that surrounds it, early began to make their way thither. Perhaps they were partly attracted by the wish to find out whence came the huge bergs, or mountains of ice, floating down from the north, dazzling white, flecked out with glowing colors in the sunshine, gray and terrible at night. And the immense whales, too, were early and eagerly sought for in the icy seas of the North.

We are carried back a thousand years, into the presence of the noble hero-king, Alfred the Great, to listen with him to the story of the first recorded arctic expedition. Ohthere who dwelt "northmost of all the Norsemen," had so strongly within his heart the passion of discovery that he could not sleep for thinking of what the unknown North might hold. So he gladly left his herds of 600 reindeer and his other riches, and pushed on north and east till he found the White Sea and the Dwina River and the North Cape. Let us, in imagination, watch the king's face as Ohthere tells of the wonders he had seen; an amused smile breaks over it at the description of the huge fat walruses and their "noble teeth." But Ohthere to prove the truth of his story, holds out in his brown hands the walrus teeth he has brought as a present to the Saxon king, and Alfred is convinced, and goes on with his notes and has the story all written down in his book.

Ohthere spoke of the natives he had found so unfriendly near the mouth of the Dwina. Unpromising as is the country stretching up to the frozen polar sea, there were then, and are now, men, women, and children who live scattered over the wide and dreary expanse, belonging to a very old family of nations—poor relations, we may call them, of the Chinese. Most of them are Eskimo, or Innuits, and these are found chiefly round about the shores of North America and the islands. Other tribes of the same family live on the desolate tundras of Asia, which are frozen hard during the winter, and form a swampy morass during the summer.

THE HARD LIVES OF THE PEOPLE OF THE FROZEN NORTH

It is difficult for us to imagine their life. No fruits, no vegetables; a little moss, but no trees, no cornfields, no towns, no way of getting about except

in small boats made of skins, or on sledges drawn by dogs or reindeer. For food, clothing, oil to give light and heat, they depend on the seals, walruses, bears, whales, foxes, and fish that share the arctic solitudes with them.

In winter, when the sun does not rise for months, they live in round houses, like inverted bowls, or beehives, built of blocks of frozen snow, which thaw as summer appears. And such a summer! For the sun, once up, stays up later and later till it does not go to bed at all. Then they take to tents made of skins.

THE MEN WHO PUSHED FARTHER AND FARTHER INTO THE UNKNOWN NORTH

But interesting as are the Eskimo and their ways, it has not been chiefly to study them that men have been ever ready, from the days of Ohthere to our own, to venture their lives in pushing still farther and farther into the unknown regions of ice and snow. Whalers at all times have sailed in search of the oil-giving monster, and have added little by little to the knowledge of northern coasts; and, following Ohthere, many brave Northmen visited Greenland and Iceland, and sighted surrounding islands and coasts. From the days of Columbus many discoverers sailed about Newfoundland and the St. Lawrence River, trying to find a way to China and the East by a northwest passage; and others, somewhat later, pushed just as eagerly towards the northeast, past the North Cape, hoping to find a quick way in that direction to trade with the rich East.

As we look carefully at our north polar map, we find many of the names of the dauntless men who faced, one after another, the storms and the ice and the dangers of starvation in small and badly provided boats, to find out the secrets of the Far North. We remember the voyages of early explorers and how they opened up trade in the White Sea port of Russia. On the northeast coast of Nova Zembla, we find Barents Land, and a bay called Ice Haven. These recall one of the most interesting of the voyages of these days. Barents and his stalwart friends were Dutchmen, and they sailed from Holland, carrying with them silks and velvets with which they hoped to open up trade with China by the northeast route.

THE LITTLE HOUSE WHERE A FEW DUTCHMEN SPENT THE LONG ARCTIC NIGHT

Thrilling are the accounts of buffetings and adventures in the stormy Arctic Ocean during the short summer; and when the ice closed in, and the storms made it impossible for them to go farther, they were forced to run their ship ashore and make a house of shelter from her planks, and live as best they could in it for many weary months all through the long arctic night.

Bears and foxes prowled around them, and far away indeed they felt from the bright, shining homes where they were so sorely missed. When the spring came at last, they built an open boat, and in it made their way homewards, landing on the north of Europe, where they were picked up by a ship, but the heroic Barents died in the open boat. It gives us an idea of the sort of men these were when we read their journal, and find that they never missed a chance of airing and refolding the precious goods with which they had been entrusted. In the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam are the trifles they left behind them in the House of Safety at Ice Haven; little books and instruments, pieces of clothing, candles that will still light. They were discovered by a Norwegian captain and

presented to Holland in memory of her gallant sons 274 years after their owners had closed the door and started on their adventurous journey homeward.

THE MEN WHO MAPPED OUT THE WORLD AROUND THE NORTH POLE

And still the north polar map went on filling up, as brave men continued exploring and naming shores and straits, islands and coasts. We can only mention a few out of their great number, such as Hudson and Baffin, Bering and Cook, Ross and Perry. These last bring us to the name of Franklin. He made several expeditions about Hudson Bay and Great Bear Lake, surveyed many miles of coast, and, after superhuman exertions, died while trying to find the Northwest Passage, near King William's Land. Not one man came home to tell the sad tale.

THE RELICS OF SIR JOHN FRANKLIN THAT MAY BE SEEN IN LONDON

This was in 1845, and many expeditions were sent out from America and England to seek the two lost vessels, the *Erebus* and the *Terror*, and to discover what had become of the brave men who had sailed in them. It was years before any traces of their fate were found in the great white North. Alas! they had all died from cold and hunger.

The numerous expeditions that went out to search for news of Franklin gained much knowledge of the great mass of islands and straits at the extreme north of the New World, and the Northwest Passage was actually traversed in 1851 by M'Clure. Five ships belonging to one of these expeditions were abandoned by order of the leader. Only one, the *Resolute*, was ever heard of again. She drifted 1000 miles, and the American captain who found her took her into port; and in the end she was refitted and restored, even to the libraries of the officers, and sent across the Atlantic as a present to the British people.

HOW MEN CREPT NEARER AND NEARER TO THE TOP OF THE WORLD

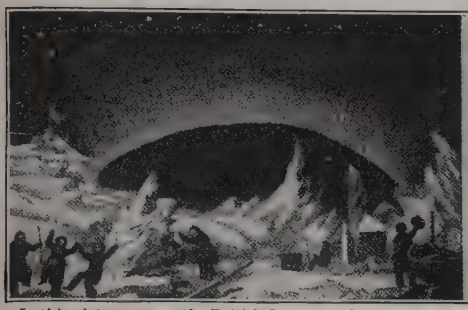
And still the efforts went on, in spite of loss of life, loss of ships, and hardships of every description. Captain Hall, an American, spent five years among the Eskimo, and gives us, in his book, most interesting descriptions of their way of life. The islands of Spitzbergen were thoroughly examined, also those of Nova Zembla. Austrians discovered and named Franz Josef Land, far north of Nova Zembla, and ever the boldest and most fortunate crept a little nearer, to the mysterious region of the Pole itself. In 1875 the *Alert* and *Discovery* sailed away under Captain Nares, to try to reach the Pole by Smith's Sound. After being frozen in the ice for the winter, when the men made many exciting and dangerous sledge journeys they returned home, having opened up large tracts of new country.

After some years full of tragedies in arctic exploration, much attention was centered on Greenland, that huge island over 1400 miles long, whose interior is covered with thick ice which has filled up the valleys almost to the level of the mountains. Being very high, as well as far north, the cold is intense on the plateau of Greenland, and it is almost impossible for a human being to live there. It is only on the narrow coast-strip, chiefly on the west, that there are settlements of Eskimo and Europeans.

THE FIRST CROSSING OF GREENLAND BY NANSEN AND HIS COMPANIONS

Nansen, the brave Norwegian, was the first to cross Greenland from one coast to the other. It was a most difficult journey, toiling up for three weeks to the inland plateau, about 9000 feet high. The sledges had to be

SCENES IN THE DRAMA OF POLAR EXPEDITIONS



In this picture we see the British flag planted at the North Magnetic Pole by Sir James Ross. He accompanied the expedition of his uncle, Sir John Ross, that started in 1829 and spent about five years amid arctic snows.

Ross's ship, the Victory, became ice-bound, and had to be abandoned, the crew making their way over the snow till they found a whaling vessel to take them home. Here we see the men building snow walls round their ship.

Sir William Parry made no fewer than five arctic expeditions, and in this picture we see the two vessels with which he made his second voyage, in the year 1819. On returning to England, Parliament awarded him $25,000.

In 1902 a German expedition under the command of Professor von Drygalski went to the antarctic regions and discovered Kaiser Wilhelm II. Land, off the coast of which their vessel, the Gauss, wintered, as shown here.

In this picture we see some of the German explorers who went to the antarctic regions in the Gauss in 1902, camping out on the ice. They returned home in 1903.

This picture, which shows the little house and tent occupied by Captain Peary on one of his polar expeditions, is from a photograph that was taken at midnight.

Here we see the Morning, one of the two relief ships that went to the aid of Captain Scott's south polar expedition in 1903. To the left the solid ice can be seen.

The explorers with Captain Scott's expedition used drag-nets to examine the life of the Antarctic Ocean. When dragging, they sheltered behind snow walls.

dragged up the steep way over rough and soft ice. Once on the high, cold plateau, the ice became firmer, and the onward and downward journey was made by hoisting sails on the sledges and sending them racing down the slopes, while the four men glided along on their swift snow-shoes.

Peary, of the United States, is the great hero of discovery in the north of Greenland. During one week of one of his journeys he discovered thirty glaciers, and later succeeded in rounding the north of Greenland. Standing on a tremendous cliff 4000 feet high, he had a magnificent view, which proved to him that Greenland was indeed an island. As we shall see, this was only the beginning of Peary's achievements.

Want of money to pay for all the necessary things needed in arctic exploration has often stopped eager enthusiasts; so when Alfred Harmsworth, now Lord Northcliffe, undertook to provide funds for Mr. Jackson's journey to Franz Josef Land, great was the explorer's satisfaction and pleasure. With provisions for three years, the party set off from the Thames in the *Windward*, and at Archangel they took on board, besides dogs, four ponies, and some houses that could be easily put up for winter quarters. They spent three winters on Franz Josef Land, exploring with sledges and making valuable maps. The *Windward* went home, and left the expedition there while she brought more stores, and then came back again and brought the explorers home.

THE WRECKED SHIP THAT DRIFTED WHERE NO MAN HAD EVER BEEN

A most interesting meeting took place in this far-distant land, while the *Windward* had gone home for stores, between Jackson and Nansen. Nansen had thought much about the drifting of some wreckage frozen fast in the ice, part of a vessel that had gone down near the islands of New Siberia, whence comes the fossil ivory. This wreckage was found on the southwest coast of Greenland three years later, after having drifted right across the Pole. So Nansen felt convinced if he could only get the right sort of ship, strong enough to resist the terrible pressure of the ice, that there would be more chance of reaching the Pole by letting her drift across in the moving ice-current than by trying to get over the rough barrier of ice in the old ways.

So the *Fram*—the *Forward*, as the name means in English—was specially built and fitted out, and Nansen passed resolutely onward round the coast of Norway, through the Kara Sea, past Cape Chelyuskin, the most northerly land of Asia, and entered the masses of ice, into which the *Fram* was soon frozen, three months after she had left Christiania.

The account of how the *Fram* drifted slowly on, how usefully and pleasantly the time was passed, how charming and homely were the festivals on birthdays and at Christmas, all reads like an impossible romance when we think of the bitter cold, the terrible winds, and the lonely ship lifted bodily up by the ice till her bottom could almost be seen.

"THE LADY IN THE CLOAK," WHO BROUGHT FOOD TO NANSEN AND HIS MEN

The polar bear, "the lady in the cloak," was almost the only visitor; and glad indeed the explorers were to see her and her friends—when short of food!

After nearly two years, Nansen thought he, with a companion, could accomplish more by leaving the ship and sledging with dogs towards the Pole than by staying in the drifting ice any longer. So he set off in March, 1895, with Lieutenant Johansen, on a

most dangerous journey. They succeeded in reaching a little farther north than did the *Fram*, but their journey lasted many months. They spent the long winter, sleeping most of the time in a little hut they put up near Cape Flora, in Franz Josef Land.

Great was their joy when they fell in with Jackson, and at last they were able to have clean clothes and a good wash with some soap. Jackson did not recognize Nansen at first, so black was he with grease and smoke and hard work. The *Windward* took Nansen back to Norway, where he soon had news of the *Fram*, which in due time had forced her way out of the ice.

In 1897 the intrepid Andrée tried another way of reaching the Pole. This was by balloon, starting from Dane's Island, Spitzbergen. He was last seen floating away to the north, and was never heard of again.

Commander Peary in Fur Costume Which is Distinctive of All His Work.

Peary's Ship The "Roosevelt" Taking Water Alongside a Glacier Near Cape York, August, 1908.

How Commander Robert E. Peary Reached the North Pole

During the years that followed several expeditions pushed into the great white North, each anxious to carry their country's flag the farthest into the unknown regions. The Duke of the Abruzzi in a magnificent effort from Franz Josef Land, approached a little nearer the Pole than Nansen. Finally, on April 6, 1909, after a life devoted to the work, Peary planted the Stars and Stripes upon the Pole.

Now let us make our way southwards, passing through temperate regions, through very hot regions north and south of the equator, just midway between the Poles; and then onwards through more temperate regions again, till the air is chilled by huge floating icebergs, much larger than those of the North, in the cold seas that surround the antarctic circle.

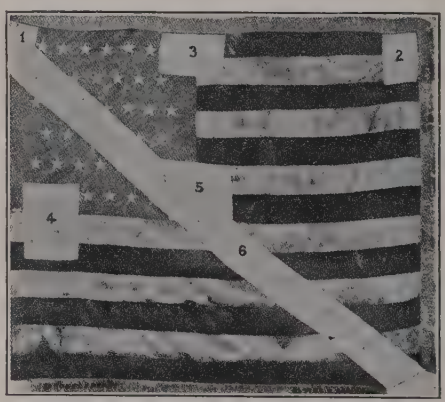
Here we find no human beings settled on the desolate shores, only the grand, white albatrosses spread their

THE SLEDGE WHICH WENT TO THE POLE.

wings above the ship, and sail steadily on, never resting, never weary, as if guarding it as it enters their enchanted land, behind the walls of ice. Besides the nests of the albatross, we shall find the amusing-looking penguins, who remind us, as we know from the specimens in the natural history museums, of children in pinafores, as they gravely scuffle along in an upright position. Seals, too, make their interesting crystal nurseries in the ice, as they do in the north polar seas.

A COMPARISON OF THE BOREAL AND AUSTRAL POLAR REGIONS

The North Pole is situated at the center of an ocean some fifteen hundred miles in diameter; the South Pole near the center of a continent some twenty-five hundred miles in diameter. At the former Peary stood upon the frozen surface of an ocean more than two miles deep, at the latter Amundsen stood on the surface of a snow plateau over two miles above sea-level. The lands surrounding the Arctic Ocean have a comparatively abundant life, reindeer, musk-oxen, arctic hares, polar-bears, wolves, ermines and lemmings, and several species of insects and flowers being found within five hundred miles of the North Pole while the Antarctic Continent possesses no form of mammalian life.



THE FLAG PEARY NAILED TO THE POLE.

Pieces cut from its folds mark all the "Farthest" Northern points of the Western Hemisphere.

1 and 2—Left at Cape Morris Jesup, May 16, 1900.
3—At Cape Thomas Hubbard, June 27, 1906.
4—At Cape Columbia, June 8, 1906.
5—At Peary's Farthest North, 87 6, April 21, 1906.
6—At the North Pole, April 6, 1909.

ADMIRAL PEARY'S ROAD TO THE NORTH POLE

After centuries of attempts, in which many lives had been lost, the world was startled by the news that Commander Peary had at last, on April 6, 1909, reached the North Pole, an achievement that he had been struggling to accomplish for years. Here we see the route taken, and the small pictures show points on the way to the Pole.

SUNRISE AT THE SOUTH POLE

Human beings dwell within seven hundred miles of the North Pole, while none are to be found within twenty-three hundred miles of the South Pole. Hence the quest of the former began centuries earlier. But the task of reacning the South Pole was in one respect easier, for the road lay over an immovable surface instead of over the shifting surface of a frozen ocean.

Exploration of Antarctic Regions Dates Back Less Than That of the Arctic

In 1772 Captain James Cook first crossed the antarctic circle and penetrated those icy regions. Bellingshausen, the Russian followed him in 1819 and discovered the first land within the antarctic circle. Then came Weddell, who in 1823 pushed his sailing vessel into the great bay southeast of Cape Horn, named after him, Weddell Sea.

In 1839–1841 Sir James Ross made an important voyage. A few years before he had located the north magnetic Pole. He was in command of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, two ships that a few years later were to bear the Franklin expedition to its fate near the same pole. Ross discovered South Victoria Land, almost south of New Zealand where he found an active volcano, Mt. Erebus. Here he followed the edge of the barrier of ice over three hundred miles to the eastward. Ross Sea, the great indentation in the antarctic continent was discovered and navigated by him and ha since been the base of operations from which the South Pole was twice attained.

Knowledge of the Antarctic Regions Contributed by Minor Expeditions

In the years 1892, 1893 and 1894 Scottish, German and Norwegian

The Cousin of The Rainbow—A Fog Bow in the Antarctic Drawn by Dr. Wilson

whalers reconnoitered the antarctic seas of Ross and Weddell in search of new whaling grounds, and in 1894 the first landing was made by some members of Bull's Norwegian crew. In 1899 a British expedition under Borchgrevink passed a winter on the antarctic continent and made at Cape Adare the first attempt at land exploration. In 1901–1902 a German expedition determined a new part of the coast and three others, under Bruce of Scotland, Nordenskjöld of Sweden and Charcot of France, also made valuable discoveries.

THE "FARTHEST SOUTH" RECORD MADE IN 1901-1903

Capt. Robert F. Scott, of Devonport, England, selecting the Ross Seas region as his base in 1901–1903, effected the first serious land exploration of the antarctic continent. In a sledge journey he covered three hundred and eighty miles due south, reaching a point within four hundred and thirty-seven miles of the South Pole. Following Scott his lieutenant, Shackleton, made even a more brilliant expedition and reached a point within ninety-seven miles of the coveted goal on January 9, 1909. At this time this was the "farthest south" record.

INTEREST STIMULATED IN THE ANTARCTIC PROBLEM

Great Britain, Norway, Germany, Australia and Japan sent expeditions into the field in 1910 and 1911 each country selecting different regions for their work. The Norwegian expedition under Capt. Roald Amundsen with four men and eighteen dogs from his ship, the *Fram* crossed the great ice barrier and reached the southernmost point of the world, December 14 to 17, 1911, and Scott's British expedition, from its base in the southwest angle of Ross Sea attained it, January 18, 1912. On the return Scott and his four companions died of cold and starvation.

Dr. Roald Amundsen, in Polar Outfit.

SCOTT'S ILL-FATED QUEST

The full story of the heroism of Captain Scott and his comrades can never be told, for the only men who knew it are dead. But Captain Scott's second in command, Commander Evans, has given the world the inspiring messages that he has to deliver from the silent land where the dead heroes lie. Captain Scott was a towering figure, fired with grim purpose and masterly courage to the last, and he chose men like himself to be his comrades. There never went out into the world a braver band than this; never a company of heroes animated by greater devotion to each other and to their purpose. They were as brave as lions and as tender as women. The last beautiful act of

THE HAPPY DAYS OF CAPTAIN SCOTT

Captain Scott's life, when he had written his noble message to the nation, was quietly to cover the bodies of his dead comrades lying at peace by his side, before lying down to take his own long sleep. It was fitting that this valiant captain should be the last to close his eyes, should live to minister to the end to the men who had been true till death.

THE COMPANY OF HEROES THAT SURROUNDED SCOTT

The story of the expedition as given by Commander Evans is one that makes the heart beat fast with pride and pity. Such friends, such comrades, such helpers the gallant captain had! Of whom shall we speak first? The men lowest in rank acted as nobly as the officers, and Commander Evans, the second in command, tells us of himself only that he may bring out the glorious heroism of two of his subordinates, who risked their lives for his, and brought him through. Perhaps, next to Captain Scott, the most lovable figure is that of the chief scientist, Dr. Wilson, the special friend of Scott. Everybody loved him. They called him "the Peacemaker," "Solomon," and "Uncle Bill." He was the captain's chief adviser, and counselor of all. If they wanted advice they went to him. If a dispute arose, it was the Peacemaker who stepped in and settled it. It was Dr. Wilson who, with Lieutenant Bowers and Cherry-Garrard marched into the frightful winter gloom and spent five weeks in weather such as perhaps no man had ever before endured without shelter, to study the rearing of the emperor penguins.

Dr. Wilson was the artist of the party, and made beautiful drawings of birds and scenery, both on this expedition as well as on the earlier one in which he had accompanied Captain

Scott. But his drawings were made at the end of terrible days of marching and pulling, which makes us marvel the more at the charm and beauty and truth of his work. He was, of course, one of the five men who made the march to the Pole itself. He carried with him a little sledging flag which his wife had made him, and another belonging to his old college. Both were found in the tent of death, carefully rolled up beside his body. That which his wife made has now been taken to England and hung in Gloucester Cathedral. On that great march we know he played a hero's part. When the last of the ponies had been shot and the last of the dogs sent back, he harnessed himself to the sledge with his comrades, and, at the head of the hauling party, bent his sturdy shoulders to pull the 190 pounds weight which was his share of the total burden to be borne.

It was to Wilson that Captain Oates turned when the Pole had been won. Evans was dead, and the little party was reduced to four, with too great a burden to pull for too great a journey on too little food. Poor Oates's hands and feet were terribly frost-bitten, and he was in torment. "What can I do? What shall I do?" was his pathetic question to the good doctor. And Wilson could only answer, "Slog on; just slog on!" It was the blunt encouragement of one hero to another, manful advice to a comrade doomed to death by another equally doomed.

For that terrible fact comes out from Commander Evans's story. Petty-officer Evans, the giant of the party, upon whose giant strength in drawing the sledge so much depended, sickened and died soon after the five turned from the Pole. From the day his strength gave way the whole party was doomed, and they knew it. His sickness held them back during precious days, and time was life. Fierce as was the cold, terrible as were the blizzards and snow storms, it was still summer. But as January came to an end the Antarctic winter was fast approaching. They had to nurse and carry their stricken man. They missed his strength for pulling, and when he died, on February 17, their fate was sealed. They had not enough food to last them for the longer time that their journey must now take. Depots of food had been left for the journey back, but these were sixty-five miles apart. There was a week's supply at each. To reach the depots and live they must march over nine miles a day, seven days a week. Short of a man, it was impossible. They fell to four and five miles a day. When Evans died, therefore, he brought lingering death upon his comrades, and from that day—February 17—the heroic four knew they were marching to their death. And it was in those circumstances that the brave Dr. Wilson turned to his dying friend, Captain Oates, and quietly said, "Slog on; just slog on!"

Wilson's close observation of details yields us another piece of information. Although on a sledge journey the weight of food grows lighter, the actual burden of the sledge grows heavier. That is due to the frost gathering about the sleeping-bags and tent. Wilson found, on his march to the emperor penguins that, whereas his sleeping-bags weighed only forty-seven pounds at the start, their weight as they came back, with frost upon them, was 118 pounds. Thus the burden of the doomed men grew heavier every hour. And yet these heroic souls clung to the little load of fossils that they had gathered on the Beardmore Glacier, where poor Evans had died. Those fossils, more precious than a hundred times their weight in gold,

added a weight of over thirty pounds to their burden, yet these dying men brought them back hundreds of miles, and laid them down beside them with the rest of their burden when, for the last time, they shut themselves in their tent of death.

Five men marched to the Pole. There were to have been only four; but, on the day on which the last supporting party turned back, Captain Scott, seeing how terrible had been the conditions for pulling, decided that his party should consist of five. So on January 3, 1912, he went into the tent of Commander Evans and said, "If you can spare me a man from your party, and make the return journey short-handed, I am sure I can now reach the Pole." Of course Commander Evans agreed, and we shall see presently the price he was to pay. The man chosen to go with Scott was Lieutenant Bowers. There was no question of Commander Evans being chosen, for he was the only one of the supporting party who could steer the way back over the 750 miles of trackless ice and snow, and bring the others to the camp at the base. So Lieutenant Bowers ceased to pull the Evans sledge back towards civilization, and joined Scott, and honor, and—death.

"Little Bowers," they called him, the last man thus chosen for the final march, seems to have been one of the giants. His strength and endurance must have equaled his courage, for Captain Scott wrote in his diary, "He was the hardiest man who ever undertook a Polar journey," and Commander Evans adds, "He was indeed a marvelous little fellow." We have a photograph of all five men actually at the South Pole, and it was little Bowers who took it. He grouped his four comrades with their flags, focused his camera, and tied a long string to the shutter. Holding the string, he crept into the picture, and sat down in the snow by the side of Dr. Wilson. Then he pulled the string. The shutter of the camera opened and closed. The likeness of the five men beside their flags in a world of snow was impressed upon the negative. The photographic apparatus was packed away, and the negative left undeveloped. It was brought back and developed, and that picture, taken by the hand of a man now dead, lives for all time to tell us of their great achievement, and gives us the likeness of the heroes in the crowning hour of their triumph. "Little Bowers!"

It is good that he went, with his laughter and merriment, to cheer the sadness of the others when the shadows were stealing over them. His name will never be forgotten, and the picture that he took will preserve forever the look of the men in their day of victory. It is a strange and almost terrible picture. The faces of the heroes are begrimed and greasy—for there is no such luxury as washing on the march where only snow is available for water—and they are unshaven, with icicles clinging to their beards; five tragic but undaunted figures, sharply outlined against the snow which was so soon to prove their winding-sheet.

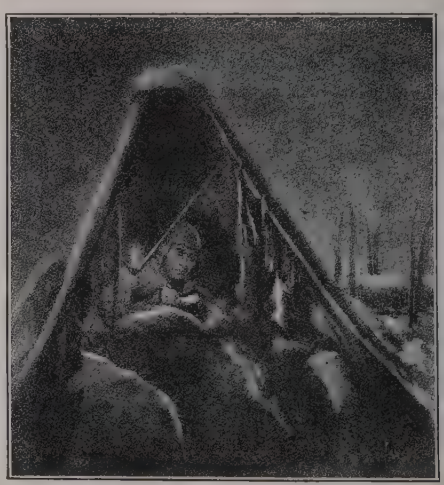
Captain Oates died as he lived, a gallant gentleman. He was a soldier, a horseman, a yachtsman, bold, strong, hardy, yet kind and tender to man and beast. He had charge of the ponies, and when their food ran short he gave them half his own supply of biscuits every day. We see him yoked to the sledge, shoulder to shoulder with Seaman Evans, and we can see that he is pulling his full 190 pounds. It was he who, on the way back, suffered so bitterly from frost-bite, whose hands and feet were maimed by this cruel affliction. Yet with those mutilated

hands, day after day, he bore the skiing poles by which a man on snowshoes balances himself, and, on feet which were already dead, he helped to pull the sledge over hundreds of miles of snow and ice.

"Slog on!" said Wilson; and Oates slogged on. He slogged on until March 17. He had slogged on for two months all but two days, and now he could slog no longer. All the way down the want of the dead Evans's strength had been increasingly felt, and now that Oates had reached the end of his powers he would not be a burden to his party. They had fought off death for six weeks. Their marches had dropped from nine miles a day to three, and even this short distance was too much for Captain Oates.

It was his birthday. They made festivals on their birthdays, but there was not food enough now for that. Oates kept the day as a festival, however, a great and noble festival of self-sacrifice. Very quietly in the morning he said to his comrades, "I am going outside, and I may be some time." That was all; he would not distress them by saying farewell. He walked out into a raging blizzard calmly to his death. He knew that with him to detain them they must die, but he hoped that without him they might lighten the sledge and fight on to One Ton Depot, thirty-one miles away. He gave them their opportunity, laying down his life that they might have a chance to save theirs. Very bravely and quietly this heroic soul went out deliberately to die in the blizzard. The others knew what his purpose was, but they dared not stay him; and the gallant leader, so soon to yield up his own life, wrote in his diary, "It was the act of a brave man and an English gentleman." A noble epitaph, written by a hero's hand.

And so only three men came on, Scott, Wilson, Bowers, stumbling feebly over the deepenings now, chilled, starving, failing; little Bowers with his valiant gayety and hardy strength, the noble Wilson with his quiet, uncomplaining trust in God, Captain Scott with the steadfast courage and knightly spirit that carried him to the end; all knowing that death was at hand, yet toiling with unconquerable courage to deserve life, if life could be won. Mile by mile they cut the distance down. Twenty miles in four days, and, lo! they were within eleven miles of safety. Eleven miles away lay the depot to which, in the previous spring, Commander Evans had taken the one ton of provisions of all sorts from which the depot got its name. Eleven miles only, but it might as well have been eleven hundred. The blizzard grew fiercer and yet more fierce. They crept into their little tent. It was set up with all the care and neatness which distinguish the sailor. The outer cover was carefully stretched over the poles; the corners were weighted with blocks of snow. The sledge and its contents were left so that at a moment's notice the remainder of their belongings could be



Captain Scott writing his diary in his tent.

packed for a start. The snow-shoes were reared up on end in the snow, ready for immediate use. But they were never needed again; the sledge was never repacked. The blizzard kept them prisoners to the end. They knew they were doomed. They took their little flags into the tent and furled them beside their sleeping-bags. At the end of four days' imprisonment Captain Scott wrote his immortal message to the world.

Eight months passed away, and then one of two search-parties that had been sent out discovered the pitiful little tent. It was half buried in snow. A little longer and it would have disappeared completely, and perhaps we should never have found it. Inside lay the dead heroes, in their final sleep, and beside them were the precious diaries they had kept, the letters they had written home, the photographs taken by little Bowers, the fossils that tell us of the great green land that once teemed with animal and vegetable life in the place of the snow and ice that had destroyed these gallant lives.

The same spirit of heroism was displayed by Chief Stoker Lashley and Petty Officer Crean, the two men in Commander Evans's team who, with him, made the journey back from the point at which Lieutenant Bowers joined Captain Scott for the last march to the Pole. The returning team should have consisted of four men, but as Bowers had gone there were only three. The voices of these three—the commander, the stoker, and the petty officer—were the last human voices the heroes ever heard, the last men they shook by the hand. At the parting the three gave the five three tremendous cheers, and watched them striding away until they were a dark speck upon the white horizon. "Little did we think," said Commander Evans "that our cheers were the last appreciation they would ever know."

The Evans party had now 800 miles to march, a man short. They soon found that to be a man short was serious. The commander saw that, in the ordinary course, they could not do the journeys they had set themselves to do, so he played an innocent trick on his two companions. In order not to alarm them by letting them think he was worrying, he quietly put his watch an hour fast in the night, so that they started at four in the morning instead of five. They marched from ten to twelve hours a day. It was a terrible journey, made worse by the fact that for three days they were pursued by a blizzard. They dared not stop, however, but pushed on through deep, clinging snow. To cut off a long curve, they climbed the head of a great glacier and coasted down on their sledges. Crean had a fall, and tore his trousers to ribbons. This was serious, but something like a miracle saved him. At the very depot to which they were advancing, Crean, on the way up, had left a store of tobacco, wrapped in an old pair of windproof overalls, and these he was now able to put on to protect him partly from the cold. Later on the journey the little party ran out of food, and had to march seventeen miles with nothing more than a biscuit and a cup of tea.

When still 500 miles from camp, Commander Evans was seized with scurvy, and later became so ill that he lost the use of his legs. This was a fearful situation for all three, but Lashley and Crean strapped the chief to a sledge and dragged him. On and on they toiled, growing weaker daily on short supplies, and, when seventy-five miles from home, Commander Evans ordered them to put him in his sleeping-bag, leave him a little food,

"WE HAVE BEEN WILLING TO GIVE OUR LIVES FOR THIS GREAT ENTERPRISE"—CAPTAIN SCOTT GIVES UP HIS LIFE AND HANDS ON THE SCROLL OF KNOWLEDGE TO THE FUTURE

and go on. The two brave men refused, and vowed that they would either take him back or die with him. Those two men, hauling their leader, actually marched forty miles in the next four days; but at last, when they were thirty-five miles from the base, such a storm of snow came on that they were beaten, and they could no longer haul the sledge. The position was critical in the extreme, and it was saved by Crean. "I'll march on to Hut Point and bring relief," stoutly said he.

It seemed impossible. The men had marched 1565 miles, dragging a heavy sledge all the way, and they were worn almost to skeletons. They gave him what little food there was to

spare, and the valiant Lashley remained to nurse his stricken officer. "Never, as long as we live, shall we forget the sight of that fine Irishman striding out across the snow on his thirty-five miles' journey," said Commander Evans. "It was equal to a journey of more than one hundred miles on an ordinary road." With only a few biscuits to support him, Crean marched stolidly on for eighteen hours. If he had fallen faint, he must have died where he lay, and then Commander Evans and Lashley, too, must have perished. But the splendid fellow trudged on. He reached the camp and staggered in, numb with cold and hunger, and almost blind and dumb with exhaustion, after two miles an hour for eighteen hours over pitiless snow and ice.

But he had saved his comrades. As soon as he had eaten and drunk, Crean actually wished to start back again to the rescue, but Surgeon Atkinson forbade him, and set out with men and dogs and stores, and saved the two men at the point of death. Such was the bravery of these comrades of Captain Scott.

GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL OUTLINES OF THE WORLD

THE WORLD IN OUTLINE
UNIVERSAL HISTORY IN PARALLEL OUTLINES
GEOGRAPHICAL MAPS AND CHARTS

THE WORLD IN OUTLINE

Its Hemispheres, Continental Divisions and Countries.

SHAPE AND SIZE—The Earth is very nearly an oblate spheroid, whose shorter axis coincides with its axis of rotation passing through the two poles. It rotates at a velocity of 15 degrees an hour (about 17.366 miles a minute at the equator); 1 degree is therefore equal to 4 minutes.

The circumference of the globe is about 24,855 miles, and the diameter about 7900 miles. Area of surface, 196,940,400 square miles; volume, 259,880 million cubic miles; mean density, 5.5.

THE LAND—The land covers 55,063,000 square miles. Strictly speaking, the land surface consists of two great continental land masses—Western Continent and Eastern Continent—and Australia, an Island-Continent; more familiar division is into six continents or grand divisions: North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia.

The mean height of the land has been estimated at 2440 feet.

THE OCEANS—The oceans, including the inland seas connected with them, cover 141,877,000 square miles, or 72 per cent of the total surface of the earth. There are 2.59 square miles of ocean to every square mile of land. Murray states the greatest depth of the Atlantic Ocean at 27,366 feet; Pacific Ocean, 30,000 feet; Indian Ocean, 18,582 feet; Southern Ocean, 25,200 feet; Arctic Ocean, 9000 feet. The Atlantic Ocean has an area, in square miles, of 24,536,000; Pacific Ocean, 70,000,000; Indian Ocean, 17,084,000; Arctic Ocean, 5,500,000; Southern Ocean, 30,592,000.

POPULATION—Estimated at about 1,700,000,000.

RACES—**Caucasian** numbers about 850,000,000, and now occupies almost the whole of Europe, the greater part of North America and Australasia, and large districts of Southern Africa, South America, and Northern Asia. **Mongolian**—natives of China, Siberia, Siam, Japan, Korea, etc. —625,000,000; Malayan—found chiefly in Malay islands and peninsula, New Zealand, and Madagascar—25,000,000; **Negro**—chiefly in Africa, with ten millions in United States—120,000,000; **American** —native Indian tribes—10,000,000; other races, 70,000,000.

LANGUAGES—Seven languages are each employed by more than 50,000,000 people—Chinese, Hindoostani, English, Russian, German, French, Spanish; 400,000,000 Speak Chinese.

RELIGIONS—Principal religions: Christian (Roman Catholic, Protestant, Greek Church), Buddhist and Confucian-Mohammedan, Brahmanist and Jewish. Religious adherence estimated; Christian, 600,000,000—Protestants, 193,000,000, Roman Catholics, 290,000,000, Greek and others, 117,000,000; Buddhists and Confucians, 500,000,000; Mohammedans, 250,000,000, Brahmanists, 220,000,000, Jews, 11,000,000, Pagans, 110,000,000.

GOVERNMENTS—The barbarous races usually live under tribal form of government; civilized nations under monarchical or republican form. The nations of the Eastern Continent are largely under monarchical forms, and, with but few exceptions, all countries of the Western Continent are republics.

I. WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

(1) North America (p. 436)	Canada (Brit.)*	C-E	2– 3
	Central America	D-E	5– 6
	Cuba	D-E	5– 6
	Dominican Rep.	D-E	5– 6
	Haiti	D-E	5– 6
	Mexico	D-E	5– 6
	United States	D-F	3– 5
(2) South America (p. 450)	Argentina	D-E	8–10
	Bolivia	E-F	7– 8
	Brazil	E-F	6– 7
	Chile	D-E	7– 9
	Columbia	D-E	6– 7
	Ecuador	D-E	6– 7
	Guiana (Brit., Fr. and Neth.)	E-F	6– 7
	Paraguay	E-F	7– 8
	Peru	D-E	7– 8
	Uruguay	E-F	8– 9
	Venezuela	D-E	6– 7

II. EASTERN HEMISPHERE.

(1) Europe (p. 455)	Austria-Hungary	F-G	3– 4
	Belgium	F-G	3– 4
	Bulgaria	G-H	3– 4
	Denmark	F-G	2– 3
	France	F-G	3– 4
	German Empire	F-G	2– 3
	Great Britain	F-G	2– 3
	Greece	F-G	3– 4
	Italy	F-G	3– 4
	Montenegro	F-G	3– 4
	Netherlands	F-G	3– 4
	Norway	F-G	2– 3
	Portugal	F-G	3– 4
	Roumania	F-G	3– 4
	Russian Empire	G-H	2– 3
	Servia	F-G	3– 4
	Spain	F-G	3– 4
	Sweden	F-G	2– 3
	Switzerland	F-G	3– 4
	Turkey	F-G	3– 4
(2) Asia (p. 468)	Afghanistan	G-H	4– 5
	Arabia (Turk.)	G-H	4– 6
	Bhutan	A-B	4– 5
	Burma (Brit.)	A-B	5– 6
	China	A-B	3– 5
	India (Brit.)	A-B	5– 6
	Japan	A-B	3– 5
	Nepal	A-B	4– 5
	Oman	G-H	5– 6
	Palestine (Turk.)	F-G	3– 4
	Persia	G-H	4– 5
	Siam	A-B	5– 6
	Siberia (Rus.)	G-H	2– 3
	Turkey	G-H	3– 4
(3) Africa (p. 474)	Abyssinia	G-H	5– 6
	Egypt (Turk. and Brit.)	G-H	4– 5
	Liberia	F-G	5– 6
	Morocco	F-G	4– 5
	Union of South Africa (Brit.)	G-H	7– 9
(4) Australasia (p. 481)	Australia (Brit.)	A-B	7– 9
	Maylasia (Europ. countries)	A-B	6– 7
	New Zealand (Brit.)	B-C	8– 9
	Philippines (U.S.)	A-B	5– 6
	Polynesia (Europ. countries)	C-D	6– 7

*All countries in this outline are **independent** except as noted in parentheses: Brit., British; Fr., French; Neth., Netherlands; Turk., Turkey; Rus., Russia.

THE WORLD
ON MERCATOR'S PROJECTION.
Telegraph Cables
Oceanic Routes and Distances
ARCTIC OCEAN
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
SIBERIA
ALASKA
DOMINION
CHINA
MONGOLIA
INDIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND
MICRONESIA
MELANESIA
POLYNESIA
ANTARCTIC CIRCLE
ANTARCTIC
Sea of Okhotsk
Bering Sea
Monday
Sunday
INTERNATIONAL DATE LINE
TROPIC OF CANCER
EQUATOR
Yokohama
San Francisco
Peking
Batavia
Sydney
Melbourne
Auckland
Wellington
Coral Sea
Antipodes of Greenwich
Point Barrow
C. Chelyuskin
C. Yakan
C. Romanzof
Pt. of Wspr
Nome
Yukon
St. Michael
Valdez
Skagway
Juneau
Bitka
Victoria
Vancouver
Seattle
Portland
Helena
Salt Lake City
Los Angeles
Honolulu
HAWAII
WAKE I.
GUAM
MARSHALL IS.
GILBERT IS.
PHOENIX IS.
CHRISTMAS I.
SOCIETY IS.
Apia
Suva
Noumea
Perth
Adelaide
Albany
Hobart
Dunedin
Christchurch
Brisbane
Norfolk I.
Kermadec Is.
Chatham Is.
Auckland Is.
Stewart I.
Macquarie I.
Emerald I.
Nimrod Is.
Dougherty I.
Pitcairn I.
Easter I.
Low Archipelago
Tahiti I.
Samoa
Fiji Is.
New Caledonia
Loyalty Is.
New Hebrides
Solomon Is.
Ellice Is.
Union Group
Marquesas Is.
Caroline Is.
Pelew Is.
Mariana or Ladrone Is.
Philippine Islands
Formosa
Hakodate
Hondo
Sakhalin Island (Jap.)
Vladivostock
Khabarovsk
Nikolaevsk
Okhotsk
Yakutsk
Verkhoyansk
Srednei Kolymsk
Nizhni Kolymsk
New Siberia
De Long Is.
Wrangell I.
Bear Is.
Bulun
Irkutsk
Krasnoyarsk
Vitimsk
Lake Baikal
Yablonoi Mts.
Amoor R.
Manchuria
Kuril Is.
Gobi Desert
Tientsin
Kiachau
Shanghai
Hankau
Fuchau
Canton
Hongkong
Tonquin
Siam
Malacca Pen.
Singapore
Sumatra
Java
Timor I.
Torres Strait
Cocos Is.
Palmerston
Broome
Albany
Tasmania
Bismarck Archipelago
Admiralty Is.
Guinea
Banka
Billiton
Borneo
Celebes
Moluccas
Sooloo Sea
China Sea
Yellow Sea
Japan Sea
Yangtze R.
Yellow R.
Lena R.
Yenisei R.
Ob R.
Irtish R.
Ural R.
Volga R.
Obi R.
Amoor R.
Yukon R.
Mackenzie R.
Columbia R.
Colorado R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Rio Grande
Great Bear L.
Great Slave L.
Winnipeg L.
Athabasca L.
Superior L.
Michigan L.
Huron L.
Erie L.
Ontario L.
Prince Patrick I.
Melville I.
Parry Is.
Banks Land
Pr. Albert Land
D'Bathurst
Queen Charlotte Is.
Aleutian Is.
Unalaska
Kodiak I.
Sandwich Is.
Lower California
Revillagigedo Islands
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Wilkes Land
Antarctic Circle
1320
1455
3330
1400
2354
1284
1040
1250
1350
1300
4880
4378
5315
4791
2035
2303
2059
2105
5739
4160
2865
2736
2400
1500
1200
1100
1000
900
800
700
600
500
400
300
200
100
90
105
120
135
150
165
180
A
B
C
D
1
2
3
4
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7
8
9
10
11

E 60 45 30 F 15 0 15 G 30 45 60 H 75 90
C. Washington
C. Columbia
MARKHAM I.
MELVILLE LAND
C. Bridgman
McKinley Sea
Independence Bay
PETERMANN LAND
GILLIES LAND
Queen Victoria Sea
FRANZ JOSEF LAND
C. Flora
SPITZBERGEN
KING CHARLES IS
Barents Sea
Ice Fiord
EDGE I.
LONELY I.
PEARY LAND
MYLIUS ERICHSEN LAND
AVDRUP LD.
KING FREDERICK VIII
C. Amicis
GERMANIA LD.
C. Bismarck
GREENLAND (Danish)
KING WILLIAM LAND
SHANNON I.
PENDULE I.
C. York
Petermann Mt.
ARCTIC OCEAN
OBEAR I.
Matochkin Strait
Kara Sea
Baffin Bay
Upernavik
JAN MAYEN ISLAND
Hammerfest
North C.
Tromsö
Vardo
C. Brewster
DISCO I.
LOFODEN IS.
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Davis Strait
Strait of Denmark
ICELAND
Hekla Vol.
Reikiavik
FAROE IS.
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
Archangel
Dwina R.
Mezen R.
Petchora R.
Obi R.
Yenisei R.
SIBERIA
BRITISH ISLES
Christiania
St. Petersburg
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Belfast
Dublin
London
Berlin
Orenburg
Omsk
EUROPE
ASIA
Paris
Aral Sea
L. Baikash
Caucasus Mts.
Black Sea
Tashkend
Bokhara
Constantinople
Teheran
Kashgar
TIBET
PERSIA
AFGHANISTAN
Lisbon
Madrid
Rome
Tripoli
Cairo
Delhi
Bombay
Calcutta
Madras
Muscat
Arabian Sea
Sahara
ARABIA
INDIA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
AZORES
BERMUDAS
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
ALGERIA
EGYPT
Timbuktu
SUDAN
Khartoum
NIGERIA
AFRICA
CAPE VERDE IS.
St. Louis
Bathurst
Sierra Leone
Monrovia
Gulf of Guinea
Cape Lopez
Benguela
ANGOLA
SKOKO
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Zanzibar
Dar es Salaam
Mombasa
Port Mombasa
MADAGASCAR
Port Louis
Tananarivo
MALAGASY
Mozambique Channel
INDIAN OCEAN
EQUATOR
MALDIVE IS.
CEYLON
Colombo
Cape Town
Port Elizabeth
C. of Good Hope
Agulhas
Walfisch Bay
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Bloemfontein
Natal
Durban
ST. HELENA
ASCENSION
TRISTAN DA CUNHA
Buenos Aires
Rio de Janeiro
Bahia
Pernambuco
SOUTH AMERICA
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
Para
Manaos
Iquitos
La Paz
Sucre
Valparaiso
Santiago
Montevideo
TRINIDAD
Tr. Brazil
ST. PAUL
AMSTERDAM I.
CROZET IS.
PRINCE EDWARD IS.
KERGUELEN I.
FALKLAND IS (Br.)
SOUTH GEORGIA (Br.)
SANDWICH GROUP (Br.)
SOUTH ORKNEY IS. (Br.)
SOUTH SHETLAND ISLANDS
PALMER ARCH. PELAGO
GRAHAM LAND
ANTARCTIC CIRCLE
ENDERBY LAND
2600
3053
3215
3100
2216
2006
2130
2640
3265
3320
2205
2600
3560
1880
5045
1010
1050
1100
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CONTINENTAL DIVISIONS

A Comparative View of the Countries of the World and their Possessions giving Important Facts relative to their Geography, Physical Characteristics, History, Government, Peoples, Education, Religion, Natural Resources, Industries and Commerce.

NORTH AMERICA

Geographical Facts

Position and Extent.—North America forms the North and larger section of the "New World" discovered by Columbus. It is separated from Europe by a sea 1930 m. broad, from Asia by Bering Strait 60 m. Its main mass is triangular in shape, and its outline varied by large peninsulas, broad gulfs and numerous bays.

Area.—8,580,000 sq. m., including Central America (215,000 sq. m.) and West Indies (90,000 sq. m.). With Greenland area is more than 9,300,000 sq. m. Greatest distance north to south, 4,500 m., east to west, 3,100.

Population.—1910 (estimated) 128,000,000.

Physical Features. — The Plateau of the Cordilleras occupies the West, from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to the Arctic Ocean. In the center it broadens out, and enclosed within is a "Great Basin" having no outlet to the sea. The highest summits are Mt. McKinley, 20,464 ft., in the N.; Mt. Harvard, 14,370 ft., in the Rocky Mountains; Mt. Whitney, 14,900 ft., in the Sierra Nevada; and the Citlaltepetl or Peak of Orizaba, 17,880 ft., in Mexico. The Appalachian Mountains in the East, form the second great mountain system and are continued to the North of the St. Lawrence in the Laurentian Mountains; the Canadian Lake Plateau and the Arctic Highlands. A Great Central Plain lies between these mountain regions, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic regions. The main height of the continent is 2,720 ft.

Hydrography.—The great rivers of N. America are the Mississippi, which drains 1,240,039 sq. m.; the St. Lawrence, which has for its reservoirs the Great Canadian Lakes (95,060 sq. m.), and drains 532,100 sq. m.; the Saskatchewan, known in its lower course as Nelson, which enters Hudson's Bay; the Mackenzie, tributary to the Arctic Ocean.

Climate.—Largely determined by the direction of the mountain ranges. Five climatic regions, viz.; an Arctic region, whose mean temperature is less than 32° F.; an Atlantic temperate region, extending as far as the Mississippi, with abundant rains and dense woods; an inland temperate region, dry, with steppes or prairies; a Pacific Coast region; and a tropical region.

Political and Social Facts

History. — North America was discovered by Norsemen about 1000 under Leif Ericson, and temporarily settled as Vinland. Rediscovery by Columbus, who reached the Bahamas Oct. 12, 1492. Northern coast of North America discovered by Cabots 1497; coast of Labrador explored by Cortereal 1500; southeastern coast—Florida—discovered by Ponce de Leon 1513; eastern coast explored by Verrazano 1524. Mexico conquered by Cortex 1519-21. California coast explored by Cabrillo 1542; by Drake 1578-79. French settlements attempted in Canada 1540, permanent French settlement began 1605; English colonies on Atlantic coast early in 17th century; in 1763 Canada passed under government of British; colonies declared independence in 1776, and at close of War of Revolution — 1775-1783 — established the Republic of the United States. In 1821 Mexico threw off the Spanish yoke and became a republic. Confederation of Central American States 1823; dissolved 1839. Cuba declared independent of Spain 1898. Panama seceded from Colombia 1903. Important wars: Great Britain with France 1754-63; United States with Great Britain 1775-83 and 1812-15; with Mexico 1846-48; Civil War 1861-65; Spanish-American War 1898.

Races.—82,901,000 Europeans, 14,367,000 Negroes, 16,021,000 American Indians and Eskimos, 1,168,000 Semites (Jews), 157,300 Mongo's(Chinese and Japs). 18,000, Asiatic Aryans (Coolies). Of the Indians, only 420,000 are within the British Dominions and the United States, while in Mexico and the other Spanish Republics they constitute the bulk of the population. Of Negroes, about 12,000,000 are in the United States and British North America, while 3,500,000 are to be found in the West Indies and elsewhere.

Religions.—Comprise Christians, Jews, Buddhists, Heathen.

Governments.—Political divisions: United States, Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama —independent republics—and Dominion of Canada and British Honduras—English colonies. Principal continental islands include Republics of Cuba, Haiti, and Dominican Republic; U. S. Territory, Porto Rico; the English colonies, Newfoundland, Jamaica, and Bahama; and the Danish dependency, Greenland. British, Dutch, French, and Danish colonies exist among the minor islands.

Natural Resources

Forests are of vast extent; timber one of the most valuable commercial products. In the north conifers prevail; forests of western mountains remarkable for giant conifers (sequoia, Douglas fir, etc.). Variety of deciduous trees very great; included are oak—45 varieties—maple, beech, birch, hickory, walnut, etc. In the warmer temperate regions live oak, pine, and palmetto also abound. Forests of tropical regions rich in mahogany, logwood, lignum-vitæ, and other rare and valuable trees.

Agriculture.—Vegetation scanty in extreme north. Central and southern sections fertile, and plant life in general varied and luxuriant. Indian corn, or maize, the potato, and manioc—a tuber found in Central America—native food plants of North America. Tobacco plant also indigenous to the country. Many of most widely cultivated plants and trees, however, introduced from eastern half of globe. Corn, wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and hay extensively cultivated in central and northern sections; in warm temperate regions sugar cane, cotton, tobacco, and rice most important; tropical regions, sugar cane, sweet potatoes, indigo, tobacco, coffee, and cacao.

Minerals.—Mineral products unsurpassed in variety and richness. Western mountain ranges among richest in the world in gold; extensive deposits of gold also in Mexico. Silver widely distributed and extensively mined in western United States and Mexico. Richest deposits of copper in the world in Montana, Arizona, Michigan, and Mexico. Greatest mineral resources of United States is its coal. Iron ores of United States and British North America of vast importance. Petroleum wells of Appalachian system were long most valuable in the world. Lead, antimony, quick-silver, salt, cobalt, nickel, zinc, platinum, and sulphur mined. Numerous varieties of excellent building stone, beautiful marbles and fine roofing slate also abundant.

United States

Geographical Facts

Area.—Excluding Alaska and Hawaii, 3,026,789 sq. m., divided among 48 States and the Federal District. Land area, exclusive of Alaska and Hawaii, 2,973,890; water area 52,899 sq. m.; extreme length Atlantic to Pacific, 2,780 m.; breadth, 1,600.

Population.—1910, 91,972,266. In 1910 the whites constituted 88.9 per cent. of the total population, the remainder including chiefly Negroes, Indians, Chinese and Japanese. Of the total number of foreign birth (14.5 per cent.) 26 per cent. were Germans, 16 per cent Irish, 11 per cent. English and Scotch, 11 per cent. Canadians.

Physical Features.—Most prominent natural features. The Atlantic Coast Plain, merging into the Gulf Coast Plain; the Piedmont, at eastern base of Appalachians; Appalachian Mountain System between Atlantic Coast Plain and Mississippi Valley; Great Central Plain drained by Mississippi—most important river of North America. Cordilleran Ranges, including Rocky Mountains, the Great Basin, a dry, arid region without an outlet to either ocean and the Pacific Region. Principal rivers of eastern section; Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, and James; chief tributaries of Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Arkansas and Red; largest rivers west of Rocky Mountains; Columbia, Sacramento, and Colorado; Rio Grande forms boundary between Texas and Mexico. Total coast line (straight), 5,715 miles; Pacific, 1,810 Atlantic. 2,349; Gulf of Mexico, 1,556; shore line of Great Lakes, 3,450 miles.

Cities.—Washington, with a population of 331,069, is the capital. Other large cities in the order of their population are. New York, 4,766,883; Chicago, 2,185,283; Philadelphia, 1,549,008; St. Louis, 687,029; Boston, 670,585; Cleveland, 560,663; Baltimore, 558,485; Pittsburgh, 533,905; Detroit, 465,766; Buffalo, 428,715; San Francisco, 416,912; Milwaukee, 373,857; Cincinnati, 363,591; Newark, 347,469; New Orleans, 339,075; Los Angeles, 319,198; Minneapolis, 301,408.

Political and Social Facts

History.—New England coast was probably visited by Northmen about 1000; by the Cabots, 1497-8; explorations made by Ponce de Leon, 1513; Verrazano, 1524; De Soto, 1539-42, etc. Earliest settlements made by Spaniards at St. Augustine, Florida, 1565; by English at Roanoke 1585-87, at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607; landing of Pilgrims at Plymouth, 1620; mouth of Mississippi reached by LaSalle, 1682, taking possession of river and surrounding country in name of King of France. French and Indian War, 1754-63. Stamp Act, passed by English Parliament, 1765, taxes, 1767, and Boston Port Bill, 1774, led to Revolution, 1775, and the Declaration of Independence, 1776. Independence recognized by France, 1778; by Great Britain, 1783. Constitution adopted, 1788; new government inaugurated, 1789; first capital, New York; removed to Philadelphia, 1790; to Washington, 1800. Louisiana purchased from France, 1803; Florida ceded by Spain, 1819; Texas annexed 1845; Mexican cession, 1848; Gadsden Purchase, 1853; Alaska Purchase, 1867; Hawaiian Islands annexed, 1898; Puerto Rico, Guam, and Philippine Islands ceded by Spain, 1898. Wars after Revolution include War of 1812 with Great Britain; Mexican, 1846-8; Civil, 1861-5, and Spanish-American, 1898.

Government.—Executive power vested in President—elected for a term of four years—assisted by Cabinet of nine members; legislative in Congress consisting of Senate and House of Representatives. Each State represented in Senate by two Senators elected by Legislature of State; in House of Representatives by members elected directly by people; number proportioned to population of State. Judicial includes Supreme, Circuit, and District courts, Court of Customs Appeals, and Court of Claims. Supreme Court consists of Chief Justice and eight associate justices.

Instruction.—Each State of the Union has a system of free public schools established by law. The work of these is largely supplemented by private and parochial schools. In 1912 the amount expended on public schools of elementary and secondary grades was almost a half billion dollars. In 1912 there were 596 universities and colleges, including the 343 co-educational colleges and the 144 colleges for men only.

Religion.—There is no State church, but numerous Protestant denominational bodies, chief of which numerically are the Methodists, Baptists, Lutherans, Presbyterians, and Disciples or Christians. Of the total communicant body, 35 per cent are Roman Catholics.

Industry and Commerce

Agriculture leads all other industries in importance; employs nearly one-half the labor of the country. Staple products: Cereals, cotton, hay, tobacco, sugar. Soil of Mississippi Valley remarkably rich; in northern portion of valley extensive crops of corn, wheat, oats, hay, potatoes, orchard fruits, etc., grown; in southern, cotton, sugar cane, tobacco, and rice. Western States have made notable advance, especially through irrigation of fertile, waterless soils. Fruits common to temperate and semi-tropical zones cultivated extensively in Pacific, Central, and Southern States.

Live Stock.—Rearing of live stock important industry in almost every State; western sections especially adapted to cattle and sheep. Enormous quantities of butter, cheese, and wool produced.

Fisheries valuable. Coast fisheries of New England and Middle Atlantic States lead in importance; Pacific Coast fisheries, including Alaska, second; those of South Atlantic, Gulf, and Great Lakes States important.

Manufactures varied and conducted on an extensive scale. Four industries with an output of a billion dollars a year each; in order: Slaughtering, foundry and machine-shop products, lumber, iron and steel. Next in order: Flour, printing and publishing, cotton goods, men's clothing, boots and shoes. Country second only to England in textile industries; leads the world in manufacture of iron and steel; New England chief seat of cotton industry. Woolen manufactures largely confined to North Atlantic States; silk to Paterson, N. J., New York and Philadelphia. Country excels in manufacture of machinery, electrical appliances, and agricultural implements; leads all others in production of flour.

Minerals.—Coal leading mineral product, Pennsylvania and West Virginia leading. Iron second, Minnesota, Michigan, and Alabama leading. Oil and gas, California and Illinois leading in oil, West Virginia and Pennsylvania, gas. Clay products, Ohio leading. Copper, Arizona, Montana, and Michigan leading. Gold sixth in rank. Colorado and California largest producers. Cement ranks eighth; silver, tenth, Nevada and Montana leading.

Forests. — Cover 550,000,000 acres or about one-fourth of the United States. Forests publicly owned contain one-fifth, those privately owned four-fifths of the standing timber. Washington has led for several years in lumber production, now followed in order by Louisiana, Wisconsin, Mississippi, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Texas.

Commerce of vast extent and importance. In foreign commerce United States surpassed only by Great Britain and Germany. Exports chiefly breadstuffs, cotton, meat, iron, steel, and copper.

POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

Geographical Facts

ALASKA.—Area.—590,884 sq. m.; extreme length, 1,100 m.; breadth, 800. Islands number about 1,500.

Population. — Total, 1890, 32,052; 1900, 63,592; 1910, 64,356. Native population approximately 35,000.

Physical Features. — Yukon district, between river and Arctic Ocean, includes Yukon Plateau, Endicott Range, and Arctic Slope Plain. Coast Range extends through southern Alaska, and includes Mount St. Elias, 18,024 feet, and Mount Wrangell, 17,500; farther inland is Mount McKinley—elevation 20,300 feet, highest in North America. Muir and Malaspina most notable of glaciers. Coast line, 26,364 m.; many excellent harbors. Yukon, principal river; length about 2,000 m.; nearly three-fourths continuously navigable for river steamers; second largest river, Kuskokwim; estimated length, 600 m.

Climate.—Great diversity of climate. At Sitka, coldest month, January; mean temperature, 34 deg.; warmest, August; mean temperature, 57; annual rainfall, 81 inches.

Cities.—Nome, commercial center of one of the leading gold-mining districts; population, 1910, 2,600; Skagway, headquarters and terminus of the White Pass & Yukon Railway, population, 872. Juneau, capital leading commercial and trading center; population, 1644.

HAWAII.—Area.—6,449 sq. m.; Group practically comprises seven inhabited islands and eleven smaller rocks or shoals, Hawaii, 4,015 sq. m.; Maui, 728 sq. m.; Oahu, 598 sq. m.; Kauai, 547 sq. m.; Molokai, 261 sq. m.; Lanai, 139 sq. m.; Niihau, 97 sq. m.; and Kahoolawe, 69 sq. m.

Population.—Census of 1910, 191,909.

Physical Features.—Chain extends from northwest to southeast; islands mountainous and of volcanic formation—partly surrounded by reefs. Surface broken and diversified by many valleys and cliffs. Most prominent physical features of group, volcanoes of Mauna Kea, 13,823 ft.—quiescent—and Mauna Loa, 13,675 ft.—active—on Island of Hawaii; Kilauea, on same island, 16 m. south, largest active volcano in the world; circumference of its oval-shaped crater 9 miles; depth, 1,000 feet. Extinct craters abound, clothed with luxuriant vegetation.

Climate.—Very healthful and equable; within the tropics, but lying in mid-ocean with prevailing winds northeast trades, perpetual summer without enervating heat; extreme heat and cases of sunstroke unknown.

Political and Social Facts

ALASKA.—

History.—First visited by Russians under Bering, 1741; Alaskan shore explored by Cook 1778; first permanent Russian settlement on Kodiak Island 1784; settlement established on present site of Sitka 1799; destroyed 1802; re-established 1804. Charter granted Russian-American Fur Company 1799, twice renewed; expired 1864. Alaska purchased by United States March, 1867, for $7,200,000. District Government provided, 1884; Federal Judicial District, 1900. Recognized as a "territory" 1906.

Political.—Alaska governed by civil code passed 1900 and amended 1909. Federal judicial district with four divisions. No local legislature; has delegate to Congress since 1906. Homestead law amended 1903.

Education.—In 1910-11, 81 United States public schools for natives were maintained, with an enrollment of 3,841 pupils, and an average attendance of 1,689. Instructions in agriculture given in sections where climatic conditions permit.

HAWAII.

History.—Islands visited by Spaniards 1542; rediscovered by Cook 1778; and named Sandwich Islands in honor of Lord Sandwich; during second visit, 1779. Cook murdered by the natives. Trade with natives established by fur traders from America en route to China, 1786. Islands united into a kingdom under Kamehameha I, 1791. Idolatry abolished 1819. American missionaries settled in islands 1820. First treaty with United States 1826, first constitution proclaimed 1840; more liberal one 1887; Reciprocity treaty, practically establishing free trade with United States, ratified 1875. reigning queen deposed, provisional government formed 1893; Republic proclaimed July 4, 1894; annexed to United States 1898; Hawaii Territory created 1900.

Government.—Government of Territory vested in a governor appointed by the President. Legislature, general elections, etc., like those of the other Territories. All legislative proceedings in English. All whites, all persons of African descent, and all Hawaiians, citizens of Hawaii immediately prior to its annexation to United States,

Industry and Commerce

ALASKA.—

Forests.—Mainly coniferous. Sitka spruce predominant tree; yellow cedar rare but valuable; besides spruce, hemlock, birch, poplar, cottonwood, alder and willow common in the interior. Dense and valuable forests in Southeastern Alaska.

Agriculture. — Climatic conditions for the most part admit of little agricultural development, but all the hardier vegetables—potatoes, cabbage, turnips, onions, etc.—and hay thrive in the more promising sections—the Tanana and Upper Yukon valleys notably. Wheat, barley, and oats have ripened here at government experiment stations. Grasses among the most valuable plant products. Berries of fine flavor abundant.

Fisheries.—One of the most valuable natural resources of Alaska. Salmon the most important; halibut, herring, and cod taken in commercial quantities; cod fishing banks among the largest known.

Minerals.—Mining, chief occupation throughout Alaska. Gold found in placer deposits and lodes. Principal deposits of Southeastern Alaska in vicinity of Juneau; of Yukon basin, in Fairbanks district. In Western Alaska most valuable deposits those of the Nome district. Prince William Sound chief copper district. Coal widely distributed, but developments insignificant: most valuable fields in Matanuska and Bering River valleys; workable deposits also on Seward Peninsula. Lead, tin, graphite, gypsum, and marble produced. Antimony, bismuth, cinnabar, and talc exist.

Fur Industry.—Most valuable fur-bearing animals, sea-otter, seal, beaver, silver and blue fox, mink, and marten. Pribilof Islands chief resort of the fur-seal.

HAWAII.—

Forests.—Higher elevations of mountains covered with dense forests, especially windward slopes. Excellent ship timber and many ornamental woods abound. Much fuel cut.

Agriculture.—Climate favorable to nearly all products of tropics and temperate zone. Sugar chief crop. Rice crop second in value. Other products: coffee; taro, the great native food; bananas; pineapples; oranges. Tobacco and cotton also cultivated. All rice and small fruits, three-fourths of taro, two-thirds of bananas, over half the pineapples and about half the sugar are grown by irrigation.

Live Stock.—Cattle and other European domestic animals introduced by Vancouver and succeeding navigators. On Hawaii herds of wild cattle roam the mountain forests. Hunted chiefly for their horns and hides.

Commerce.—Chief imports, groceries and provisions, clothing, grain, timber, machinery, hardware, and cotton goods. Exports, raw sugar, fruits, coffee, rice.

POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Cities.—Honolulu, capital, chief seaport, and center of commerce. Hilo, second in importance; seaport on east coast of Hawaii—largest island of group. Lahaina, on western coast of Maui; only safe port on island.	declared citizens of United States. **Education.**—Hawaiian language reduced to writing and first book published in Hawaiian, 1822. Native seminary founded, 1831. Excellent system of free public schools (English) established throughout the islands. **Religion.**—All forms permitted.	
PORTO RICO.—Area.—including dependencies—Island of Vieques, Culebra, Mona, etc.—3,606 sq. m. Porto Rico is fourth in size of the Greater Antilles. Length, 95 m.; breadth, 35. **Population.**—1910, 1,118,012; whites, 589,426. **Physical Features.** — Surface broken by mountain ranges, extending in general from northeast to southwest; altitude ranges from 1,500 to about 3,750 feet; highest elevation, El Yunque. Tops of mountains all cultivable. Island well watered by numerous rapid-flowing streams; longest rivers in north; estimated number of long rivers, 51; small streams, creeks, etc., 1,200. **Climate.**—Porto Rico most healthful region of Western Hemisphere within the torrid zone. Temperature rarely reaches 100 deg.; never falls below 50 deg.; during summer never above 95 deg. on seacoast. Rainfall copious; heaviest north of mountains, fields frequently inundated by excessive downpour; south of mountains country subject to droughts. Mean annual rainfall, 64.5 inches. **Cities.**—San Juan, on narrow island off northern coast, capital and leading city, has best harbor on island. Population, 48,716. Ponce, on southern coast, most progressive and one of the most healthful places. Population, 63,444. Playa, the seaport, two miles distant, seat of custom house and all consular offices. Mayaquez, on western coast, most healthful of all the cities. Population, 42,429.	**PORTO RICO.—** **History.**—Discovered by Columbus, 1493, and named by him Porto Rico; invaded and conquered by Spaniards under Ponce de Leon, 1509-11; natives revolted under Spanish oppression and were practically exterminated within a century; negroes imported as slaves. Three years' war for independence ended in defeat, 1823. Island granted representation in Spanish Cortes, 1870; slavery abolished, 1873; Porto Rico given autonomous government under a Governor-General, 1897. At close of Spanish-American War, 1898, island formally ceded to United States. **Government.**—Administered by a Governor and Cabinet, appointed by the President. Executive Council constitutes upper legislative house and has 11 members; lower house, 35 members. Absolute power of veto over all legislative and administrative acts of the insular government held by U. S. Congress. **Education.**—By the census of 1899, over 83 per cent of the population could neither read nor write; in 1899 school system was reorganized, and education made compulsory. University at Rio Piedras. **Religion.**—Roman Catholic the prevailing religion. Island contains 71 cathedrals under Spanish rule; the appropriation for the Church made up nearly 5 per cent of entire revenue of island.	**PORTO RICO.—** **Agriculture.**—Soil extremely fertile and intensely cultivated. Plantations chiefly on coast plains and in valleys of rivers; irrigation, necessary to successful cultivation of large part of land in southern districts, unsystematically carried on. Sugar, introduced from Canaries through Santo Domingo, also a staple production. Chief products of the island are sugar, tobacco, coffee, pineapple, grapefruit, oranges, and other tropical fruits, sea island cotton, textile fibers, vegetables; figs, date palms, and tamarinds grow readily. **Live Stock.**—Extensive district in northeast especially adapted for raising cattle; pastures, covered with luxuriant grasses and abounding in running water. Principal draft animal of island a superior breed of oxen, especially adapted to conditions of the country. Native horses also raised. Island of Vieques large producer of beef cattle. **Manufactures.** — Sugar-making, coffee mills for preparing coffee for shipment, chocolate manufactories, and the manufacture of straw hats, baskets, rush pack saddles, cigars, cigarettes, and a coarse grade of plug tobacco most important. **Minerals.**—Valuable salt deposits worked at Guaniza, Salinas, and Cabo Rojo. Sulphides of copper and magnetic oxides of iron found in large quantities. Gold found in many mountain streams; worked by natives by primitive processes. Marble, lignite, and amber also occur; the two latter chiefly at Utuado and Moca. Clays of superior quality plentiful. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, textiles, provisions, iron and steel, and manufactures of wood, etc. Exports; sugar is the most important. Coffee, leaf tobacco and oranges also important. Free trade with United States proclaimed 1901.
PHILIPPINES. — Area. — Number of islands in group about 3,141—many mere rocks and uninhabited islets. Area, including Sulu Islands, about 127,853 sq. m. **Population.**—1910, 8,276,802, of whom about one million are non-Christians. **Physical Features.**—Interior of all islands mountainous; many volcanoes exist; Apo (10,312 ft.,) on Mindanao, and Halcon, Mindoro highest elevations in Philippines. Between the numerous mountain chains are luxuriant plains and wide, fertile valleys. Rivers and lakes, numerous, especially in larger islands. Coast line irregular the numerous creeks and bays forming	**PHILIPPINES.—** **History.**—Islands discovered by Magellan 1521; first settlements by Spaniards made on Island of Cebu, 1565. Spain took formal possession of islands 1569; Manila erected into colonial capital 1571. Conquest of islands attempted by Chinese 1574; various contests with Dutch 1606-42; Manila captured by English 1762; restored 1764. Numerous native rebellions have occurred; most important those of 1822, 1841, 1872 and 1896. Philippines ceded by Spain to the United States, 1898. **Government.**—The whole of the Archipelago is now under civil government; in the Moro Province	**PHILIPPINES.—** **Forests** extensive; practically untouched. Mountain ranges in general thickly clothed with trees. Many varieties of rare hardwoods, suitable for interior woodworking, furniture, shipbuilding, etc., abound, other trees afford dyewoods, gums, resins, and flowers used in manufacture of perfumery. Numerous palms — including cocoanut — and bamboos grow in profusion. Tropical fruits abundant. Pineapples grown chiefly for fiber from which the beautiful pina cloth is woven. **Agriculture** is in a primitive condition. Large proportion of cultivable area entirely undeveloped. Soil of extraordinary richness and

POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
many natural harbors; eastern coast steep and rugged. **Climate.**—Continual summer. Hottest season from March to May; most islands receive rain during southwest monsoon; rainy season, beginning middle of April, lasts six months; dry season other half of year. On all coasts facing Pacific Ocean seasons reverse of above; hottest months June, July and August. Greater part of archipelago periodically disturbed by terrific hurricanes. Earthquakes frequent. Islands in general healthful, excepting in marshy districts, where malaria exists; rate of mortality low. **Cities.**—Manila, capital of islands, founded 1571 by Spaniards; situated on western coast of Luzon. Population, 234,409. Bauan, on Luzon Island, in great hemp-growing district; population, 39,094. Lipa, inland trading center on Luzon Island, population, 37,934. Argao, in Cebu Island in great cacao region, 35,448. Laoag, port of northwestern Luzon; exports chiefly rice, 34,454. Iloilo, port on southeastern coast of Island of Panay. Has sheltered harbor with excellent anchorage. Population, 19,054. Cebu, on eastern coast of Cebu Island, capital of Colony from 1565 to 1571. Population, 31,079.	comprising parts of Mindanao and the Sulu Islands, most of the civil offices, including that of governor, have been filled by military officers, but these are being gradually replaced. The central government is composed of the Governor-General, who is the chief executive and President of the Philippine Commission, and eight Commissioners (four Americans and four Filipinos). **Education** is under the direction of Secretary of Public Instruction; the Archipelago is divided into 36 educational divisions. English is taught in all public schools. **Religion.**—The dominant religion of the islands is the Roman Catholic, there being in addition to an American archbishop, 5 American, 1 Italian and 2 Filipino bishops, and 1 Spanish Apostolic Prefect. In Luzon an Independent Filipino church has come into existence. The Moros are Mohammedans, and there are pagan tribes (now numbering about 725,000) in some of the more remote regions.	fertility. All economic plants of tropics successfully grown. Chief industries of islands production of hemp, sugar, copra, and tobacco. Leading product hemp, plant found wild on all mountain slopes. **Minerals.**—Gold found on nearly all larger islands. Lead found in Luzon and Cebu; most important deposits on island of Marinduque. Iron containing from 75 to 80 per cent pure metal abundant in Luzon, Cebu, and Panay. Copper occurs in nearly all the islands. Sulphur in neighborhood of active and extinct volcanoes. Coal exists in many localities; petroleum also found in Cebu. Marble of fine quality exists; quarried in limited quantities. Pearl fisheries of Sulu Islands a source of wealth. **Live Stock.**—Cattle, sheep, and goats introduced from Spain; number in islands not large. Domestic pigs and chickens numerous in farming districts. Carabao, or water buffalo, principal beast of burden; oxen also used. Philippine ponies found in large numbers, small in size, but possessed of great strength and endurance. **Manufactures.** — Cigars the staple article of manufacture. Pina muslin of pure pineapple-leaf fiber, with rough cloth from selected hemp fiber, and some special cotton and woolen fabrics constitute the textiles. Straw hats and mats and cordage manufactured. Rough pottery, whitewood furniture, wood carving, bamboo furniture, handsome embroideries, and work in silver and gold are among local industries. **Commerce.**—Principal imports: Flour, rice, wines, clothing, petroleum, coal, machinery, and iron. Principal exports, 1911: Hemp, sugar, copra, tobacco leaf, cigars.

OTHER INSULAR POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

GUAM.—
The Island of Guam, situated at the southern extremity of the Mariana Archipelago, is the largest island of that group. It was ceded by Spain to the United States by the Treaty of Paris in 1898, and having a convenient harbor, it is now used as a United States naval station. The length of the island is 32 miles, the breadth from 4 to 10 miles, and the area about 210 square miles. The capital is Agaña (5 miles distant from Apra Harbor).

The number of inhabitants in 1913, was: native, 12,448; foreign, including members of the naval establishment, 515 (American, European, Chinese, and Japanese); total, 12,963. The native language contains Chamorro and Tagal words, but Spanish is also spoken, and the use of English is Compulsory.

A compulsory school system is now in operation, both in Agaña and in the villages. The children are taught in English, and learn also carpentry and other handicrafts. An agricultural experimental station has been established, supported by Federal appropriations.

The products of the island are maize, copra, rice, sweet potatoes, coffee, cocoa, and sugar, besides valuable timber. There are about 5,000 head of cattle, including 800 water buffaloes.

SAMOAN ISLANDS.—
The Island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171 degrees west came into the possession of the United States in 1900. In that year Great Britain and Germany renounced in favor of the United States all rights over these islands, those to the west of that meridian being assigned to Germany. The harbor of Pagopago had, in fact, been occupied by the United States, under already existing treaty rights, in 1898.

The Island of Tutuila, 70 miles from Apia, has an area of about 54 square miles, with a population of 5,452. Manua and the other islets (Ofu and Olosega), have a united area of about 25 square miles, with about 1,797 inhabitants. Tutuila is mountainous, luxuriantly wooded and fertile. It is described as the most pleasing of the Samoan islands. The harbor at Pagopago which penetrates the south coast like a fiord, is the only good harbor in Samoa. It is a United States naval station, the Government having acquired there a land area of about 40 acres.

There are 4 religious missions at work: The London Missionary Society, the Roman Catholic (French) mission, the Mormon mission, and the Wesleyan mission.

WAKE and other Islands.—
The United States flag was hoisted over Wake Island in January, 1899, by Commander Taussig, of the Bennington, while proceeding to Guam. It is a small island in the direct route from Hawaii to Hongkong, about 2,000 miles from the first and 3,000 miles from the second.

The United States possesses a number of scattered small islands in the Pacific Ocean, some hardly more than rocks or coral reefs, over which the flag has been hoisted from time to time. They are of little present value and mostly uninhabited. The largest are Christmas, Gallego, Starbuck, Penrhyn, Phœnix, Palmyra, Howland, Baker, Johnston, Gardner, Midway, Morell, and Marcus islands. The Midway Islands are occupied by a colony of telegraphers in charge of the relay in the cable line connecting the Philippines with the United States.

The Santa Barbara group is a part of California and the Aleutian chain extending from the peninsula of Kamchatka in Asiatic Russia to the promontory in North America which separates Behring Sea from the North Pacific, a part of Alaska.

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
DOMINION OF CANADA **Physical Features.**—Great natural features of Eastern Canada, the Laurentian Mountains and St. Lawrence Valley; of Central Canada, Hudson Basin and great interior plains; Western Canada, the Saskatchewan, Nelson, and Mackenzie valleys with their numerous large lakes—Winnipeg, Athabasca, Great Slave, Great Bear, etc.—and the Rocky Mountains and Coast Ranges. Surface of Eastern Canada largely plains and undulating lowlands, in great part heavily wooded; Central chiefly prairie land; Western a region of lofty mountains with intervening valleys and vast primeval forests. **Area.**—3,729,665 sq. m., comprising all territory of North America north of the United States except Alaska, Newfoundland, and Greenland. **Population.**—By census of 1911, 7,204,838. In 1901 over 87 per cent of inhabitants, natives of British North America. English speaking, about 3,720,000; French, 1,650,000. **Cities.**—Population of the principal cities and towns, 1911: Montreal, 470,480; Toronto, 376,538; Winnipeg, 136,035; Vancouver, 100,401; Ottawa, 87,062; Hamilton, 81,969; Quebec, 78,710; Halifax, 46,619; London, 46,300; Calgary, 43,704; St. John, 42,511; Victoria, 31,660; Regina, 30,213; Edmonton, 24,900.	**CANADA.—** **History.**—Earliest explorations by English under Cabot, 1497-98. First important explorations and permanent settlements made by French — Cartier's explorations 1534-35-40, Champlain's 1603-8. Quebec founded, 1608. Trade with Indians established in northwest by Hudson's Bay Company (English), 1670. Halifax founded by English, 1749; Quebec captured by English, under Wolfe, 1759; country ceded to Great Britain, 1763. Dominion of Canada formed by confederation of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia provinces, 1867; Northwest Territories acquired, 1869; Manitoba admitted, 1870; British Columbia, 1871; Prince Edward Island, 1873; Alberta and Saskatchewan were made provinces in 1905. **Government, etc.**—Executive government vested in the King, administered through a Governor-General—appointed by the Crown for five years—aided by a Privy Council. Legislative power rests with a Parliament, consisting of a Senate of 87 members—appointed by the Governor-General for life—and a House of Commons, members of latter elected by the people. The nine provinces forming the Dominion have full powers to regulate their own local affairs, each has its separate Parliament and a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General. Capital of Dominion, Ottawa. **Education.**—The Provincial Governments have control of education; the systems are all based on the principle of free education, the funds being supplied in nearly all the provinces by Government grants and local taxation. In Ontario, Quebec, Alberta, and Saskatchewan there are separate schools for Roman Catholics. Each province has one or more universities (20 in all, with about 500 professors and teachers and 10,000 students), and several colleges. **Religion.**—There is no State Church in the whole of British North America. The leading denominations are Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Anglicans and Methodists. About 41 per cent are Roman Catholics.	**CANADA.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Industries of the country chiefly agricultural and pastoral. Chief agricultural districts: Valleys of the Red, Athabasca, Saskatchewan, and Peace rivers, and extensive areas in British Columbia and Eastern Canada. Wheat, oats, barley, corn, potatoes and hay lead. Fruit-growing is an important industry in Eastern Canada; apples, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, grapes, etc., grow luxuriantly, extensive areas in British Columbia also adapted to fruit culture. Dairy-farming and stock-breeding have made great progress; cheese and butter largely manufactured. **Fisheries** of Canada a vast and widely distributed resource. Lakes, rivers, and 8,000 miles of shore fisheries yield an almost inexhaustible supply of fresh and salt water fish. Principal catches—salmon, cod, lobsters, herring, mackerel. **Manufactures** have made notable advance since adoption of protective policy in 1879. Saw and flouring mills, foundries, machine shops, and butter, cheese, and condensed milk factories rank high. Wood pulp mills also established; owing to great amount of spruce, poplar, etc., future of pulp industry must prove of vast importance to Dominion. Textile industries now have a greater aggregate capital than flouring mills; cottons lead. Leather and sugar refining important in Quebec and Nova Scotia, canning of fish in British Columbia. **Minerals.**—Mining now ranks among the most prominent industries of Dominion. Mineral resources of country rich and varied. Chief mineral products: Coal, silver, nickel, gold, copper, cement, clay products, asbestos, limestone, iron, natural gas. **Forests** cover an area estimated at 535,000,000 acres; constitute one of chief sources of wealth; lumbering a leading industry. **Commerce.**—Foreign trade largely with Great Britain and United States. Chief articles of export: Animals and their produce, wood and wood manufactures, wheat and wheat flour, minerals, fish. Chief imports, textiles and iron and steel manufactures.
ALBERTA.—Area.—255,285 sq. m.; length, 750 m.; width, 400. **Population.**—In 1901, 73,002; 1911, 374,663. **Soil.**—Surface well watered, except in south, where irrigation is needed covered with a deep black loam, whose fertility and depth make it very productive. **Climate.**—Healthful, long, dry winters, cool summers; often called Sunny Alberta for its long hours of sunshine. **Cities.**—Edmonton, the capital, Calgary, and Lethbridge.	**ALBERTA.—** **History.**—Formed from the provisional district of Alberta and parts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan and Athabasca. Admitted to the Dominion as a province in 1905. **Government.**—The executive is vested nominally in the Lieutenant-Governor, who is appointed by the federal government, but actually in the Executive Council, or the Cabinet of the Legislature. Legislative power is vested in the Assembly in the name of the king. **Education.**—Free public schools; preparatory schools at Calgary, Lethbridge and other towns. University of Alberta has been established by the Government.	**ALBERTA.—** **Agriculture** the chief occupation—1,250,000 acres cultivated in 1909, 80,000,000 acres wheat land; 18,013 homesteads were taken up in 1910, and much land is still available. **Live Stock.**—The luxurious grasses, abundant water, and dry winter climate are favorable for live stock. **Dairying** is developing rapidly, over two and one-half million pounds of butter were produced in 1910. **Minerals.**—There are enormous areas of soft and hard coal.
BRITISH COLUMBIA.—Area.—Total area, 355,855 sq. m.; length, 764 m.; breadth, 400. Vancouver	**BRITISH COLUMBIA.—** **History.**—Mainland occupied and entirely under control of	**BRITISH COLUMBIA.—** **Forests, etc.**—Forests among most valuable resources of Province.

CANADA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Island, 15,937 sq. m.; Queen Charlotte Islands, 5,000 sq. m. **Population.**—392,480 in 1911. **Physical Features.**—Three principal mountain ranges traverse mainland northwest to southeast. Rocky Mountains in east; average elevation, 8,000 ft.; west of Rockies, separated by wide valley 600 m. long, are the Gold Ranges, with many elevations of 10,000 ft.; Coast Range averages 100 m. in width, mean elevation 6,000 to 7,000 ft. Greatest elevation on Vancouver Island, 7,484 ft. Country between Gold and Coast Ranges great interior plateau. Lakes numerous. Principal rivers: Frazer, Columbia, Stikine, Liard, and Peace. Pacific coast line, including indentations, 12,000 m., noted for number of bays, passages, and islands. Burrard Inlet most important harbor on mainland. **Climate.**—Entire coastal section very humid; annual precipitation ranging from 38 inches at Victoria to 95 inches at Prince Rupert, Coastal climate extraordinarily mild. **Cities.**—Victoria, on Vancouver Island, capital and seaport; large shipping trade and an extensive wholesale business. Vancouver, on Burrard Inlet, largest city and chief Canadian port on the Pacific. New Westminster has valuable trade in lumber and salmon. Nanaimo, on Vancouver Island, center of coal mining industry. Prince Rupert Pacific terminus of Grand Trunk Pacific R. R., now building. Rossland, an important mining center.	Hudson Bay Company previous to 1858. Vancouver Island leased by Company, 1849; reverted to Crown and became a Crown Colony, 1858; during same year mainland erected into a colony under the title of British Columbia; Vancouver Island incorporated with British Columbia, 1866; Colony admitted into Dominion of Canada, 1871. **Government.**—In hands of Lieutenant-Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Assembly. Represented in Dominion Parliament by 7 Representatives and 3 Senators. **Education, etc.**—Schools undenominational and mostly supported by Government. Instruction free; attendance compulsory. Branches of McGill University in Victoria and Vancouver. **Religion.**—Church of England, Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Methodists and Baptists are the chief bodies in the order named.	Coasts as far north as Alaska covered with dense growth of valuable timber. Estimated woodcd area, 182,000,000 acres. Trees attain gigantic size on west slopes of Coast Ranges; among the most valuable are Oregon pine or Douglas fir, red and yellow cedar, and white spruce. **Agricultural, etc.**—Principal agricultural districts: Frazer Valley, southwestern portion of Vancouver Island, and Okanagan District. Throughout the Province and large areas of open country, chiefly pastoral or requiring irrigation for crops. Area under cultivation small. Country adapted to cereals, fruits, grasses, hops, flax, sugar beet, tobacco, and vegetables. Special attention given to fruit culture at New Westminster and Yale. Large tracts of excellent pasture, interest in dairy farming growing rapidly. **Fisheries.**—Large rivers and protected sounds afford splendid fishing. Salmon canning and fur sealing most valuable branches of industry. Deep-sea fisheries important and steadily developing. **Minerals** chief source of wealth. Gold found throughout the Province, richest district Cariboo. Coal deposits large and widely distributed. Comox—area about 700 square miles—and Nanaimo—200—most important fields; extensive deposits also in Crow's Nest Pass. Silver, lead, and copper mined; iron, platinum, gypsum, asbestos, plumbago, and mica exist.
MANITOBA.—Area.—Physical Features.—Total area, 251,832 sq. m. Surface in general consists of a series of successive levels—locally known as "steppes" or benches—the lowest lying near the great rivers, sometimes subject to overflow. Lands are chiefly prairie. In Laurentian districts of north and east, surface broken and hilly, abundantly watered, and with good timber and occasional broad, fertile tracts. Principal rivers: Red River of the North and Assiniboine, Among large lakes are Manitoba, Winnipeg, and Winnipegosis. **Population.**—In 1911, 455,614; density 6.2 per sq. m. **Climate.**—Healthful but one of great extremes. Cold of winters modified by clear, dry atmosphere; summers hot; subject to frequent thunder and hail storms and liable to early frosts. Average snowfall of Province, 62 inches. Altitude of Winnipeg, 740 feet. **Cities.**—Winnipeg, the capital, lies within the center of the great wheat-growing district of Manitoba and is the commercial and educational center of Manitoba and the Canadian Northwest. Population, 1871, 241; 1901, 42,340; 1911, 136,035. Brandon, second city in size and importance, important grain market. Portage la Prairie, important railroad center and grain market. St. Boniface, suburb of Winnipeg.	**MANITOBA.—History.**—Earliest explorations within the territory made by French; fort built at mouth of Assiniboine by Chevalier de la Verendrye, 1731. First visited by English traders 1767; various, rival companies formed; companies later united in Northwest Company and finally merged into Hudson Bay Company. Lands along either side of Assiniboine and Red rivers purchased from Hudson Bay Company by Lord Selkirk, 1811; Colony, known as Red River Settlement and also as Assiniboia, founded 1812; territory repurchased by Hudson Bay Company, 1836; transferred to Imperial Government, 1869; to Canadian, 1870, during which year as Province of Manitoba it entered the Dominion. **Government.** — Executive government administered by Lieutenant-Governor, assisted by an Executive Council of 5 members; Legislative Assembly consists of a single chamber of 40 members. **Education.**—Schools free and non-sectarian; supported by Government grants and taxes levied on municipal lands. Normal School at Winnipeg. Collegiate institutes for advanced education tributary to public schools at Winnipeg, Portage la Prairie, and Brandon. **Religion.**—No State church. Presbyterians, Church of England, Methodists, Roman Catholics, Baptists, predominate in the order named.	**MANITOBA.—Agriculture** the chief occupation of the people. Resources of country very great; soil exceedingly fertile and unusually productive, especially in Red River Valley. Experimental farm at Brandon, operated at expense of Dominion Government, has been of great value in development of agriculture. Staple crop wheat: oats, barley, hops, flax, hemp, grasses, potatoes, and other root crops also grown. **Horticulture.**—Among cultivated fruits are found raspberries, strawberries, gooseberries, currants, and crab apples, with occasionally a few standard apples. Indigenous fruits are plums, several varieties of cherries, raspberries, black currants, gooseberries, blueberries, and grapes; excellent cranberries in marshy districts, and strawberries—found upon the open prairie are abundant. **Live Stock.**—Rearing of cattle the chief branch of this industry, export of beef cattle an important item in the trade of the province, horses rank next to cattle in importance, hogs and sheep are also commanding attention; poultry raising profitable in all farming communities. **Manufactures.** — Flour-milling chief industry: others, meat-packing, lumber, printing, foundries and machine-shops. Flour mills established in all larger towns. Oatmeal mills at Winnipeg, Brandon, Portage la Prairie, and Pilot Mound.

CANADA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
NEW BRUNSWICK.—Area.—Physical Features.—Total area, 27,985 sq. m. Surface generally undulating, elevation slight; highest point, 2,170 ft. St. John River, chief natural feature, drains 9,000,000 acres of Province; Miramichi next in importance. Lakes numerous but small. Coast line, 500 m., indented by large bays and fine harbors. Dense forests of pine, cedar, spruce, etc., cover large areas in north and northwest; leading source of wealth. **Population.** — 1911, 351,889, more than nine-tenths being natives of British North America. Density per sq. m., 12.61. **Climate.**—Subject to great extremes; of southern coast modified by surrounding waters; dense fogs frequent. **Cities.**—St. John, important seaport with extensive maritime and manufacturing interests. Fredericton, capital and port of entry. Moncton, port of entry.	**NEW BRUNSWICK.—** **History.**—Country settled by French 1639, and formed part of Acadia or New France until ceded to Great Britain 1713; settlers emigrated from Scotland 1764; 1783 great influx of American loyalists. Made separate colony 1784; became one of original provinces of Dominion, 1867. **Government.**—Administered by Lieutenant-Governor and an Executive Council. Represented in Dominion Parliament by 10 Senators and 13 Representatives. **Education, etc.**—Schools free and non-sectarian. Public, primary and grammar schools. University of New Brunswick, Fredericton. Roman Catholics, Baptists, Church of England, Presbyterians and Methodists, chief religious bodies.	**NEW BRUNSWICK.—** **Agriculture.**—Greater part of province wooded. Chief crops: Oats, wheat, barley. Other cereals also grown; also potatoes, turnips, etc. **Live Stock.**—Excellent natural facilities for rearing live stock—horses, cattle, sheep and swine. Increasing activity in dairy interests. **Fisheries** valuable; Province ranks next to Nova Scotia and British Columbia in extent and value of products. Total catch distributed thus: Herring, salmon, cod, lobster, smelts, sardines, haddock. Oysters and lobsters in great quantities and of excellent quality. **Manufactures.**—Chief manufacture, lumber, Salmon, lobster and oyster canning of great importance. Textile and paper mills, iron works, etc., established. **Minerals** varied. Bituminous coal deposits particularly valuable. Petroleum, antimony, manganese, iron ore, silver, gold, and plumbago exist.
NOVA SCOTIA. — Area. — Physical Features.—Area, 21,428 sq. m. Surface diversified by lofty hills, broad valleys, numerous lakes and rivers. Chief river, Annapolis Cobequid Mountains in the north (1,200 ft.). Coast line, 1,200 m.; shores abrupt and irregular, with many inlets and fine harbors, especially in southeast; deep water close to land. Forests abound in excellent timber; lumbering important. **Population.** — 1911, 492,338; average density per sq. m., 23. Inhabitants descendants of French Acadians, English, American Loyalists, and Scotch immigrants. **Climate.**—Modified by Gulf Stream, temperate and healthful; more equable than that of any other Province. Dense fogs on Atlantic coast. **Cities.**—Halifax, capital and chief city; principal naval station in British North America. Sydney, seaport with fine harbor; in vicinity of extensive coal mines. Yarmouth, chief ship-building town. Glace Bay, chief coal-mining town.	**NOVA SCOTIA.—** **History.** — Visited by Cabots, 1497; Port Royal (Annapolis) settled by French, 1604; British claimed country by right of discovery; ceded to France, 1667; retroceded to Great Britain, 1713; Cape Breton and Prince Edward Island annexed to Nova Scotia, 1763; latter separated, 1770; Cape Breton, 1784 but reannexed, 1819. Responsible Government introduced, 1848; Nova Scotia one of original provinces of Dominion, 1867. **Government.**—Vested in Lieutenant-Governor assisted by an Executive Council, a Legislative Council, and a Legislative Assembly. **Education.**—Free and non-sectarian. Public, high and superior schools. Victoria School of Art, Dalhousie College, Halifax; Kings College, Windsor; Normal and Agricultural School, Truro. **Religion.**—Roman Catholics, Presbyterians, Baptists, Church of England, Methodists, in order named.	**NOVA SCOTIA.—** **Agriculture.**—Extensive area of salt marshes around Bay of Minas; produces large crops of salt-hay and cultivated grasses. Mixed farming prevails. Hay most valuable crop; grain and root crops important. Excellent apples produced in large quantities. **Live Stock.**—Large area adapted to rearing of sheep and cattle. Cheese, butter, and condensed milk factories increasing. **Fisheries** rank second, after British Columbia. Chief catches, cod, lobsters, herring, mackerel, haddock, pollock. **Manufactures.** — Development facilitated by excellent natural advantages and abundance of raw materials. **Minerals.**—Coal area, 635 sq. m.; other minerals, gold, gypsum, iron ores, manganese, copper, and tungsten.
ONTARIO.—Area.—Physical Features.—Total area, 407,262 sq. m. Surface generally undulating, rising in the north to an altitude of 1,200 feet above sea level; greatly diversified by rivers and lakes. Blue Mountains south of Georgian Bay. Elevation 1,900 feet. Southern portion of Province drained by St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers; Ottawa forms 400 m. of northeastern boundary; navigable 250 m. Water front extends along Great Lakes and connecting waters about 3,000 m.; contains many good harbors. Region north and west of Lake Ontario abounds in lakes. **Population.**—Census of 1911, 2,523,274, an increase of 16 per cent in ten years; average density for each sq. m., 9.7. **Climate.** — Generally pleasant and healthful; extremes modified by dry, clear atmosphere, and in southwest by extensive adjoining waters.	**ONTARIO.—** **History.**—Region around Lakes Ontario and Nipissing visited by Champlain, 1615, around Lake Superior by fur traders, 1660; Lake Huron district claimed by Perrot for France, 1671. Niagara founded by La Salle, 1679. Toronto founded, 1749. Territory originally formed part of Province of Quebec; became a separate province in 1791 under name of Upper Canada; reunited to Quebec, 1841; separated, 1867, and entered the new Dominion as Province of Ontario. **Government.**—Executive Government vested in Lieutenant-Governor, aided by an Executive Council of 7 members; Legislative in an Assembly of 106 members, elected for 4 years; sessions annual. **Education, etc.**—School system under control of Minister of Education. Law provides for maintenance of separate schools for	**ONTARIO.—** **Forests.** — Northern Ontario clothed with dense forests abounding in valuable timber. Large areas covered with white pine, commercially the most valuable tree; spruce, next in importance, found almost everywhere in large quantities; affords the most desirable material for wood pulp. Other valuable timber trees are oak, ash, elm, maple, hickory, larch, balsam, fir, linden, sycamore, black cherry, walnut, and butternut. **Agriculture** leading industry. Agricultural college near Guelph has done much to promote improvements in all branches of farming. **Horticulture.**—Fruit farming successfully pursued in southwest. Province noted for its superior apples; grown largely in all lake counties.

CANADA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Cities.—Toronto, seat of Provincial Government; has fine harbor. Chief trade and educational center. Hamilton, at head of navigation on Lake Ontario, "the Canadian Birmingham." Ottawa, capital of Dominion and second city; extensive industries mainly connected with the lumber trade. London, manufacturing and commercial center. Brantford, agricultural implements and other industries. Kingston, important naval and military station.	Roman Catholics. Education practically free; attendance compulsory between the ages of 7 and 13. There were 54 model schools and 5 art schools in 1902. Universities at Toronto, Kingston, and Ottawa. School of Mining, Kingston. **Religion.**—Methodists, Presbyterians, Church of England, Roman Catholics, Baptists predominate.	**Live Stock, etc.**—Stock raisi and dairy farming are constan increasing sources of profit. Spec attention is given the breeding fine cattle and sheep. Onta one of foremost dairy countri Manufacture of cheese has attain large proportions; product of perior quality. Butter of excelle quality made. **Fisheries.**—Great Lakes pr cipal source of Ontario's fish supp Chief catches, herring, whitefi and salmon-trout. Waters Rainy River District support i portant and extensive fisheries. **Manufactures.** — Abunda water power affords unusual ind trial facilities; leading manufact ing province. Principal industri lumber, flour, clothing, slaughteri dairy, and foundry products, t tiles, smelting, farm machine leather. **Minerals.**—Mineral resour varied and widely distribut
	Region west of Lake Superior rich in iron ore. Most important gold regions those of Rainy River District Cobalt mines principal silver producers. Richest petroleum districts Oil Springs and Petrolia; natural gas also produced. Nickel and copper near Sudbury; corundum in Hastings County Salt area, 1,200 sq. m.; clays, mica, asbestos, and building stone abundant. Nickel, cement, copper, important industries.	
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.— **Area.**—2,184 sq. m.; breadth, 4 to 35 m.; greatest length, 150 m. **Population.**—1911, 93,728. Most densely populated province: average density per square mile, 42.9. Of inhabitants over nine-tenths natives of British North America. **Physical Features.** — Surface rolling and well watered; greatest elevation about 500 feet. Deeply indented coast line bordered with several small islands. **Climate.**—Milder than that of adjoining continent and markedly healthful. Winters long and cold; summer heat modified by sea breezes. **Cities.**—Charlottetown, capital; population, 1911, 11,203; Summerside, excellent harbor, good export trade; population, 2,678; Georgetown, seaport, with good trade; center of shipbuilding.	**PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—** **History.**—Visited by Cartier 1534; first named Isle St. Jean; settled by French; became definite possession of Great Britain 1758. Separate Government established 1768; first parliament called 1773; name changed to Prince Edward Island 1799; admitted into Dominion 1873. **Government.**—Vested in Lieutenant-Governor, and Executive council, and a Legislative Assembly. **Education.**—Schools free and non-sectarian; partly supported by Government. **Religion.**—Over 44 per cent of population Roman Catholic. Members of leading creeds, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist, Church of England, Baptists.	**PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—** **Agriculture** leading pursu Fruit culture successful. Oats important crop. Conditions of land favorable for live-stock industr large numbers of horses and cat reared; particular attention giv to fine breeds. Rapid developme of dairy interests. **Fisheries** important and capa of great development. Ch catches, lobster, herring, oyste cod, mackerel, hake.
QUEBEC.— Area. — Physical Features.—Area, 706,834 sq. m. Surface greatly diversified; characterized by numerous rivers and lakes. St. Lawrence River—basin of this system comprises southern part of Province—traverses the country from southwest to northeast between two principal mountain ranges; Shickshock or Notre Dame Mountains (Mount Logan, 3,767 ft.) south of river; Laurentian, average height 1,600 ft., north. Laurentides National Park with magnificent forests and lakes, near city of Quebec. **Population.**—1911, 2,002,712; average density per sq. m., 5.7. Over three-fourths of population of French descent, retaining original language and customs. Official proclamations printed in both French and English. **Climate.** — Variable. Winters long, cold intense; severity, however, greatly modified by dry, bracing atmosphere; snowfall heavy. Summers warm and pleasant. **Cities.** — Montreal, metropolis and chief commercial city of Canada; situated on Island of Montreal at head of ocean navigation. Quebec, capital and second city in size. Most strongly fortified city on west-	**QUEBEC.—** **History.**—Territory discovered by Sebastian Cabot 1497; first important explorations and earliest settlements made by French under Cartier 1535-41; explorations by Champlain, 1603, who made first permanent settlement at Quebec, 1608. Quebec captured by English 1759; entire territory including present province of Ontario, ceded to English 1763; Province of Quebec organized 1774. Divided into Upper and Lower Canada 1791; reunited as United Provinces of Canada 1841; separated and provinces of Quebec and Ontario established 1867. **Government.**—Executive vested in a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Governor-General, assisted by an Executive Council, which is composed of 7 members. There is a Legislative Council of 24 members and a Legislative Assembly of 74 members. **Education.**—Under control of Superintendent of Public Instruction. Separate schools are maintained for Roman Catholics. Funds secured partly by local taxation, partly by Government grants. Among other educational institutions, 660 model schools, 217 academies, 10 normal schools,	**QUEBEC.—** **Forests** comprise about 12 000,000 acres; constitute one leading sources of wealth. Pi spruce, ash, birch, walnut, map and many other varieties of valua timber abundant. Spruce larg manufactured into wood pu Lumber interests of vast importan **Agriculture, etc.**—Agricult an important occupation; all far ing interests advancing rapi Soil in northeast poor and th good in southeast. Oats, whe barley, rye, buckwheat, hay, a root crops successfully grown; more favored sections Indian co hemp, flax, and tobacco. Provi second in value of fruits; app plums, and small fruits larg produced; grape culture in south and western sections a profita and growing industry. **Live Stock, etc.**—Leading pr ince in dairy products, chi butter and cheese. Cattle rea in large numbers for export English markets and for the da **Fisheries** extensively purs in Gulf of St. Lawrence, on co of Labrador, Gaspé Penins and Magdalen Islands; indus has attained large proporti Chief catches are cod, herr

CANADA —Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
ern continent; important seaport. with large exports of lumber. Hull nanufactures paper, pulp, lumber, etc. Sherbrooke has iron-working ndustries, and largest woolen mills n Canada.	18 Roman Catholic classical colleges, 4 universities, 10 schools of arts and design. **Religion.**—Roman Catholic the prevailing religion. Leading denominations: Roman Catholic. Church of England, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist.	salmon, lobsters, mackerel, etc. **Manufactures.**—Province ranks second in Dominion in quantity and value of manufactures. Chief products: Lumber, cheese, boots and shoes, textiles, tobacco, sugar, iron and steel products, clothing, leather, paper, and flour. **Minerals.**—Quebec rich in minerals: deposits of gold found in District of Beauce; copper in eastern townships. Valuable deposit of hematite iron ore near Hull; large deposits of chromic iron discovered in Coleraine 1895. Asbestos occurs in large quantities. Petroleum found in Gaspé County.
	Phosphate rock mines, in Ottawa Valley have been extensively worked. Mica of superior quality exists in Saguenay district; also found in Ottawa and Pontiac districts. Peat deposits large and valuable. Limestone area large. Lead, silver, and platinum exist.	
SASKATCHEWAN. — Area. — 251,700 sq. m.; length, 760 m. **Climate.**—Clear and dry atmosphere, comparatively light precipitation, equable temperature during winter. **Population.**—In 1911, 492,432. **Cities.** — Regina, the capital; Saskatoon, seat of University of Saskatchewan; Moosejaw, and Prince Albert. **NEWFOUNDLAND. — Area. —** 42,734 sq. m.; including coast of Labrador, 49,734. Extreme width, 300 m.; length, 419. **Physical Features. —** Surface diversified by hills, rivers, and lakes. Chief rivers, Exploits and Gander; largest lake, Grand. Coast line, 1,200 m. The "Grand Bank" extends eastward from Newfoundland about 600 m.; vast submarine plateau. Extensive pine forests; timbering, pulp-wood, and shipbuilding growing industries. **Climate.**—Healthful and milder than that of Canada; summers short and warm; southern coast subject to fogs. **Population. —** 1910, 237,531; Labrador coast, 4,100. **Cities.**—St. John's, capital and fortified city; fine harbor; population. 31,501. Harbour Grace, 5,184, Carbonear, 3.703.	**SASKATCHEWAN.—** **History.**—Formed from parts of the provisional districts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan and Athabasca; admitted to the Dominion, 1905. **Education.**—School districts are established by the government; a university has been established at Saskatoon, a collegiate institute at Regina. **NEWFOUNDLAND.—** **History.**—Country discovered by Cabot 1497. During 16th century settlements made by both English and French, between whom constant strife existed. Island ceded to Great Britain 1713; certain fishing rights retained by French a source of dispute; French shore rights extinguished by convention of 1904. Representative Government granted 1832; responsible established 1855. **Government. —** Newfoundland with Labrador a Crown Colony; Government administered by Governor, assisted by an Executive Council, Legislative Council, and House of Assembly. **Education, etc.**—Schools, 1907, Roman Catholics, 276; Church of England, 327; Methodists, 285; others 30.	**SASKATCHEWAN.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Essentially a wheat-growing country; leads all other provinces in wheat production. Lumbering extensively carried on. **Live Stock.**—Swine industry has developed rapidly. Cattle raising is carried on to some extent. **Dairying.**—Natural conditions are eminently suitable for mixed farming and dairying. **NEWFOUNDLAND.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Chief products, potatoes, other root crops, hay, barley, and oats. Extensive tracts suitable for grazing. **Fisheries** principal occupation; value of fishing products being almost two million sterling annually. Cod fisheries most extensive in the world. Province important in propagation of lobsters. Herring fisheries productive. Seal caught in quantity for skins and oil. **Commerce.**—Chief imports are flour and other provisions, textiles, hardware, coal, etc.; exports, fish products, copper, and iron ores. **Minerals.**—Copper deposits, extensive; iron ore; coal and valuable deposits of silver and lead found; gold, asbestos, and petroleum exist. Building stones, marble, and roofing slate abundant.

CANADIAN TERRITORIES

NORTHWEST TERRITORIES.—History.—Territory tributary to Hudson Bay granted to Hudson's Bay Company 1670; North West Company chartered 1783; two companies united 1821. Fort Selkirk established 1848. Territory acquired by Dominion 1869. Gold discovered on Stewart River 1885; Klondike discoveries 1896-7. Provisional districts of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca formed 1882—from which were created the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan 1905. **Yukon,** made separate territory, 1898, under Commissioner; gold discovered in Klondike, 1898.

LABRADOR.—Visited by Norsemen about the year 1000; by Cabot 1497; Cortereal 1501; Hudson 1610. Annexed to Newfoundland 1763; placed under Government of Lower Canada 1774; re-annexed to Newfoundland 1809. **Area,** 120,000 sq. m. Newfoundland portion limited to narrow strip—10 miles wide—along coast. Surface rugged; coast irregular, with many good harbors, interior a vast table-land. **Climate** rigorous; ice-bound throughout winter, summer pleasant. **Fisheries** valuable. Exports cod, salmon, herring, seal, whale oil, and furs. **Population,** 1910, 4,076.

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce

MEXICO

Area.—767,005 sq. m. Divided into 27 States, 3 Territories and the Federal District of Mexico.

Population.—1910, 15,063,207. Race distinction abolished by constitution of 1824; greater part of mixed races and Indians still uncivilized. Spanish the prevailing language.

Physical Features. — Surface a plateau rising from low coast plain by succession of terraces to 6,000 to 9,000 feet above sea level, Plateau is bordered on either side by mountain ranges which parallel the coast. Country diversified by mountain chains and many isolated peaks, all of volcanic origin; three rise above perpetual snow: Orizaba, 18,209 feet; Popocatepetl, 17,888 (both dormant volcanoes), and Ixtaccihuatl, 17,343. Sierra Nevada Mountains traverse Peninsula of Lower California; within this region earthquakes frequent; also in southern Mexico. Rio Grande de Santiago, Mescala, and Yaqui most important rivers. Lakes numerous; Chapala, 100 m. long by 35 m. wide, largest.

Principal Cities.—Mexico, capital and chief city, founded by Aztecs, 1325; finest city in Spanish America; has cathedral founded 1573, national palace, library—265,000 volumes—museum, and a military academy; connected by rail with New Orleans; population, 1910, 470,659. Puebla, one of chief cities, founded 1532; important railway center; has thriving trade, potteries, and iron and bronze works. Guadalajara, second city, has various manufactories; seat of a mint; contains university and an academy of painting. San Luis Potosi, railroad-center, in ranching district. Monterey, in rich mining district. Vera Cruz, principal seaport; founded by Cortez.

MEXICO.—

History. — Early inhabitants Aztecs and other Indian races. Conquered by Spanish under Cortez, 1521. Independence from Spain declared, 1810; warfare with Spain until Revolution of Iturbide, 1821, when last Spanish viceroy was deposed; empire under Iturbide proclaimed, 1822; republic established, 1824; war with United States, 1846-48, resulted in loss of New Mexico and California. Invasion of French, 1863; empire under Maximilian (upheld by French troops), 1864-67. French troops withdrawn, Maximilian executed, republic restored, 1867. Present constitution adopted, 1857; amended variously since. Numerous ruins of the ancient civilization exist.

Government.—Federal republic modeled on that of United States. Legislative power vested in Senate—2 members for each State and the Federal District—and Chamber of Deputies—1 deputy for every 40,000 inhabitants. President elected for term of 6 years.

Education.—Attendance at primary public schools compulsory; age, 6-16; at higher schools encouraged but not compulsory; English taught in the latter; 600,000 children in public schools. Institutions of higher education remarkably well attended. The Government has, at Vera Cruz, a naval academy having for its model the one at Annapolis, U. S. A.

Religion.—Prevailing religion Roman Catholic; all others tolerated; church independent of State, and no ecclesiastical body can acquire landed property. In 1900, 13,533,013 Roman Catholics; 51,795 Protestants.

MEXICO.—

Agriculture.—Farming metho primitive. Government off special inducements for establi ment of agricultural colonies. Pr cipal food crops of central plate corn, wheat, beans, barley, a rice. In southern and sou eastern States coffee and toba extensively grown; in Yucat henequen fiber (sisal hemp) p duced in large quantities; rubb tree and cinchona also cultivat Other products, cotton, cane sug indigo, cochineal, sarsaparilla, cacao, pecans, vanilla, and magu plant. Promising future for cott and fruit culture.

Manufactures.—Output of su and molasses valued at ab $13,000,000 annually; spirits, $1 000,000. Sugar produced, 1911-160,000 tons. Cotton factori 1910, 142; spindles, 702,874; loo 25,017.

Minerals chief wealth of Mexi Mining region comprises 80 cent of area; yields 20 per cent world's production of gold a silver. Other minerals, lead, copp platinum, iron, antimony, asph coal, bismuth, zinc, petroleu salt, mercury, sulphur, tin, op etc. Leads world in output silver.

Forests.—Mountain slopes a Atlantic low-lands covered w dense forests of rare and valua trees and plants; included building and cabinet timbers, d woods, and medicinal plants great commercial value. Amo the most important trees mahogany, ebony, brazil-wood, l wood, palm, cocoanut, pine, ced oak, rubber-tree, henequen, ix valuable fiber plant, cincho mulberry tree. cultivated ext sively for silkworms. For 43,933,200 acres.

Commerce chiefly with Uni States. Chief imports: Mine fuels, agricultural and indust machinery, woolen and cotton goods, animal products, liquors, and railway cars. Chief exports: silver, gold, copper, henequen, coffee, rubber, cabinet woods, cattle, hides, and tobacco.

CENTRAL AMERICA

Central America extends from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec to the Gulf of Darien.

Area, about 310,000 sq. m., population, 4,500,000. Its narrowest part, at the Isthmus of Panama, is only 40 m. across.

Physical Features.—Similar to those of Mexico; elevated plateau in center with diversified surface and gradual slope to Atlantic; low coast plain on east. Cordilleran Range follows Pacific Coast (up to 13,000 feet high); in northern part extends from northwest to southeast; slope toward the Pacific steep. Volcanoes numerous; earthquakes frequent and often violent.

GUATEMALA.—Has an area of 48,300 sq. m. **Population,** estimated, 1,992,000. About 60 per per cent pure Indians. **Cities**—Chief city and capital, Guatemala; population, 90,000, nearly all Europeans.

CENTRAL AMERICA.—

Divisions.—Politically, country divided among the republics of **Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica,** and **Panama,** and the Crown Colony of Great Britain, **British Honduras.**

Climate.—Of elevated lands, temperate and healthful; low coast lands hot and insalubrious. Rainfall abundant everywhere, on Atlantic slopes almost constant.

GUATEMALA—

History. — Guatemala was conquered by Spaniards 1524; constituted kingdom of vice-royalty of New Spain; became independent 1821; formed part of Confederation of Central America 1823; republic established 1847. **Government** administered by President elected for a term of six years; legislative

CENTRAL AMERICA.—

Dense **forests** abound: m hogany, cedar, and dye wo largely exported. **Agriculture** couraged by legislation. Co most important production. nanas, sugar, maize, wheat, ri cacao, cotton, and tobacco other products. **Farm anim** numerous; great interest in ca industry. **Manufactures** are ch ly textiles; making of furniture valuable national industry. **Co merce** largely with United Sta Great Britain, and Germany. ports chiefly cotton fabrics. ports: Coffee, hides and ski bananas, etc. Gold, silver, and s the only **minerals** worked.

GUATEMALA—

Forests abound in valua timber, resins, gums, balsams, medicinal plants. **Agricult** chief industry; coffee the lead product; among others are sug cacao, indigo, tobacco, india rubb and bananas. Breeding of ca and horses profitable. **Comme** chiefly with United States, Gr

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
	power rests with National Assembly. **Education** free and compulsory. There are government primary schools, private primary and secondary schools, and institutions for special instruction. Prevailing **religion** Roman Catholic; all other creeds tolerated.	Britain, Germany, and France. Imports: Leading articles, cottons, drugs, hardware, flour, silk goods, and yarn: exports; coffee, gold, silver, lead, indigo and sugar. **Minerals** abundant. Deposits of gold, silver, copper, iron, and lead are worked; other minerals have been located.
SALVADOR has an area of 7,225 sq. m. **Population,** 1,070,555 —most densely populated country in Western Hemisphere. San Salvador, capital, founded 1528; repeatedly devastated by earthquakes; population, 59,540. Santa Ana, in coffee district.	**SALVADOR.—** **History.**—Salvador was conquered by Spanish 1524; independence proclaimed 1821; member of Central American Federation until 1839, when it became an independent republic. Executive **Government** rests with President; legislative with National Assembly. **Education** free and compulsory. Primary schools, higher schools, including 3 normal schools, 3 technical and a national university.	**SALVADOR.—** Tropical **forests** cover Atlantic slopes and large part of lowlands; mahogany, rosewood, logwood, brazilwood, sarsaparilla, and vanilla abound; in higher elevations, pines. **Agriculture** gradually developing; culture of bananas leads in importance; tobacco, sugar, maize, rubber, cocoanuts, and coffee produced; rice, wheat, and indigo grown. **Cattle** reared extensively. **Commerce** largely with United States. Imports chiefly cotton textiles; exports, bananas, cocoanuts, hides, and coffee lead. Honduras remarkably rich in **mineral** deposits, but development is inadequate. Gold, silver, platinum, copper, nickel, lead, zinc, iron, quicksilver, and antimony occur: coal also exists.
HONDURAS has an area of 46,260 sq. m. **Population,** 1910, 553,446; aboriginal Indians and descendants of Europeans, chiefly of Spanish origin. Tegucigalpa, capital; population, 34,692. Chief ports, Puerto Cortes, Ceiba, Trujillo, and Omoa.	**HONDURAS.—** **History.**—Honduras was discovered by Columbus 1502; formed part of Guatemala—vice-royalty of Spain—until 1821; withdrew from Confederation of Central America 1839 and established independent republic. **Government** administered by President, elected by popular vote; legislative power entrusted to Congress of Deputies. **Education** free and compulsory; instruction entirely secular. There are primary schools, a national university and normal schools. Prevailing **religion** Roman Catholic; freedom guaranteed all creeds.	**HONDURAS.—** **Forests** abound in mahogany and other valuable cabinet woods—timber trees, dyewoods, etc. **Agricultural** products include coffee—most important—cacao, bananas, sugar, corn, rice, and tobacco; India rubber also produced. Chief occupations of inhabitants cultivation of coffee and rearing cattle. **Commerce** principally with United States, Great Britain, and Germany. Exports chiefly coffee, mahogany, gold, rubber, bananas, cattle, hides. **Mineral** products, gold, silver, copper, and precious stones.
NICARAGUA has an area of 49,553 sq. m. **Population,** 600,000. Managua, on Lake Managua, capital; population, 34,872. Leon, the largest city, in rich agricultural section; population 62,569; principal seaport San Juan del Norte (Greytown).	**NICARAGUA.—** **History.**—Region discovered by Columbus 1502; visited by Spaniards 1523; under dominion of Spain until 1821, when it became one of Federated Republics of Central America; independent republic established 1839. Executive **government** vested in President; legislative power vested in Congress of a single House. **Education.**—356 primary schools, 12 schools for higher education.	**NICARAGUA—COSTA RICA** Dense **forests,** remarkable for hardwoods, cover the highlands, especially in the northeast; india rubber, tree-ferns, vanilla, and cacao found; cedrela, or West India cedar, largely employed in cigar boxes and pencils, abundant; on higher elevations oaks and conifers. **Agriculture** extending; most important products—coffee and bananas; cultivation of bananas greatest industry. Other products cultivated are maize, sugar, rice, and potatoes. Cacao rapidly advancing in rank as an article of export. **Live stock** includes cattle, horses, hogs, etc.; extensive grassy plains in southwest; excellent pastures also in highlands. **Commerce** chiefly with United States, Great Britain, and Germany. Imports: chief articles, cotton goods, flour, machinery, and railroad material. Exports: bananas, coffee, gold and silver bullion, cattle hides, rubber, timber. **Mining** industry flourishing. Several districts especially rich in gold and silver; other minerals widely distributed are nickel, iron, and manganese.
COSTA RICA has an area of 23,690sq.m. **Population.**1910, 379,-033;immigration encouraged by government. San Jose, capital, founded 1738; seat of university and observatory; population, 1910, 29.660 Chief ports: Limon, on Caribbean sea; population, 5,269; Punlarenas, on Pacific coast, population, 4,696	**COSTA RICA.—** **History.**—Under vice-royalty of New Spain, formed province of Guatemala; became independent 1821; member of Confederation of Central America 1824 to 1839. Boundaries in dispute with Colombia and Nicaragua settled by arbitration during 1900. Executive **government** vested in President; legislative power in Constitutional Congress. Elementary **education** free and compulsory. State **religion** Roman Catholic; entire religious liberty accorded.	
PANAMA.—Total area is 32,-280 sq.m. **Population,** according to the census of 1912 (including the	**PANAMA.—** **History.**—The republic of Panama was constituted on November	**PANAMA.—** **Agriculture.**—The soil is very fertile, but not well cultivated.

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Canal Zone), 426,928. Population of the Canal Zone, 62,810 or 12.9 per sq. m. The inhabitants are of a mixed race, comprising Spanish, Indian, and Negro elements, with a small number of temporary immigrants from the United States and European countries. Chinese subjects are estimated at 3,500. **Cities.**—The capital, Panama has 37,505 inhabitants; Colon or Aspinwall, 17,748.	3. 1903, having previously been a department of the republic of Colombia. **Government.**—The Constitution provides for a Chamber of Deputies of 28 members (one for every 10,000 inhabitants), which meets biennially on September 1, and for a President of the Republic, elected for 4 years, and not eligible for the succeeding term. **Education.**—The Government maintains public schools for free instruction; and a university, the principal teachers of which are foreigners. In addition there are about a dozen private institutions.	**Commerce** chiefly with Unite States. Leading products f export: Bananas, cacao, coffe tobacco, sugar-cane, india rubbe ivory nuts, turtle shells, pearl and mahogany.
BRITISH HONDURAS, Crown Colony of Great Britain, has an area of 7,562 sq. m. **Population,** 1911, 40,458. Belize, capital; population, 10,478.	**BRITISH HONDURAS.**— **History.**—Possession of country long disputed by Spaniards; conceded British territory, 1783. **Government** vested in Governor assisted by Executive and Legislative Councils. United States gold standard of value. Government maintains primary schools, secondary schools and two others with secondary departments.	**BRITISH HONDURAS.**— Extensive **forests** of valuab timber abound; mahogany ar logwood staple products. **Agr cultural** products include coffe bananas, plantains, cocoanuts, I dian corn, sugar cane, and tobacc Elevated districts afford excelle pasturage for cattle. **Commer** with United States and Gre Britain. Principal exports: m hogany, logwood, bananas, ceda cocoanuts, and chicle.
CUBA.—**Area.**—**Physical Features.**—Largest of West India islands. Area, 44,164 sq. m. Island divided into two parts by great marshy depression, extending from north to south coast, in about 79 deg. west. Traversed by broken ranges of mountains; principal mountainous region in southeast; highest point, Pico Turquino, 8,320 feet. Western part largely an elevated region diversified by low, forest-clad hills and mountains, and well-drained, gently-sloping plains. Coast lands, especially in south, marshy. Island well watered; longest rivers in south; principal one, Cauto. Coast line, including all indentations, more than 6,500 miles; fringed by numerous coral reefs and islands; large number of excellent harbors. **Population.**—Census of 1910; 2,150,112; density per sq. m., 46.5, 70.3 per cent of population white; 29.7 per cent colored. **Cities.**—Havana, capital; most important commercial center; harbor strongly fortified. Numerous cigar and cigarette factories. Matanzas, chief industries, rum distilling, sugar refining, and manufacture of guava jelly. Santiago de Cuba has fine harbor and a flourishing trade; outlet for most important mining district. Cienfuegos, second city, with one of safest harbors on south coast, is commercially one of chief towns of Cuba. Camaguey, largest inland city, in agricultural district. Cardenas, another important commerical center; large trade in sugar.	**CUBA.**— **History.**—Discovered by Columbus, 1492; first settlements made by Spanish, 1511; during sixteenth century repeatedly invaded and plundered by buccaneers and slavers; held by English, 1762-63; ten years' war, 1868-78; at close Cuba granted representation in Spanish Cortes. Revolution, 1895, resulted in Spanish-American War, relinquishment of island by Spain, and independence of country under protection of United States. Republic since 1902. **Government, etc.**—President, assisted by cabinet of 9 ministers; exercises executive power; legislative power entrusted to National Congress—Senate and House of Representatives. Terms of President and Vice-Preisdent, 4 years. There is no Cuban currency and no paper money. **Education.** — Under military government of United States, public school system was completely reorganized. No other government department receives more attention than that of education. Highest instruction given at University of Havana; many institutes, and colleges for secondary education. Spanish prevailing language spoken.	**CUBA.**— **Forests** among most valuab resources of island; extend ov large areas and include an unusu number of hard woods. Area State forests about 1,250,000 acre Mahogany, ebony, lignum-vits logwood, cedar, and pines abundar Mahogany is exported and ced is used locally for cigar boxe Palms surpass in economic val all others, owing to their manifo uses. **Agriculture.**—Soil and clima highly favorable to agricultur sugar and tobacco the stap products. Cuban tobacco superi to all others. Potatoes and oth vegetables abundant; cereals al grown. All well-known tropic fruits with many other varieti flourish; fruit culture one of mo promising pursuits in future d velopment of island. Commercial pineapples, oranges, grape-fruit a other citrus fruits have lea Fiber plants numerous; best knov henequen. Grasses grow almo everywhere; food, water, and c mate, all favorable to breeding live stock. **Commerce.**—Principal export sugar, tobacco, cigars and cigarette copper and manganese, frui woods, syrups, skins and hide imports, cereals, meats, cott and cotton manufactures, iron a steel, machinery; etc. **Minerals.**—Mining distric chiefly in eastern part; copp manganese, and iron mines a worked in the Province of Orient iron mines very extensive. Th are rich deposits of asphalt ne Mariel. Gold also found. Ir the most important mineral pr duced; ore largely hematite a magnetite.
HAITI.—**Area** of island, 28,249 sq. m. Dominican Republic, eastern and larger portion, 18,045 sq. m.; Haiti Republic, 10,204 sq. m. **Population.**—Over nine-tenths negroes and remainder mulattoes.	**HAITI.**— **History.**—Island discovered by Columbus, 1492; colonized by Spaniards under Columbus, 1493; French settlements established in western part of island during 17th	**HAITI.**— Magnificent forests, rich in ra cabinet and dye woods, clothe t mountains. Minerals varied a abundant but practically unworke **Agricultural** products, coff

NORTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Estimated number 2,029,700. French the language. **Physical Features.**—Surface varied; island traversed by three principal mountain chains intersected by numerous fertile valleys and plains; Loma Tina, Dominican Republic (10,300 feet), highest elevation. Coast line, deeply indented, affords many excellent harbors. **Cities.**—Port au Prince, capital and chief city; has excellent harbor; population, 75,000.	century. Natives exterminated by middle of 18th century and negro slaves imported; revolution of negroes, 1791-93. Entire island governed by Toussaint Louverture from 1795, who proclaimed its independence, 1801. Complete expulsion of French effected. 1804. Spanish or eastern part of island separated from Republic of Haiti and became Republic of Santo Domingo, 1844. **Government** of Republic is vested in President; legislative in National Assembly of 2 houses. Term of President, 7 years, usually cut short by insurrections. Elementary **education** free; system still very imperfect; 400 national schools. Education made compulsory in 1910. Prevailing **religion,** Roman Catholic.	cotton, cacao, tobacco, sugar, and some tropical fruits. **Commerce** largely with United States. Principal exports: coffee, cacao and logwood and logwood roots, cotton seed, cotton; also hardwoods, hemp, copper and zinc; imports, cottons, sacks, machinery, and iron-work. **Mineral** resources undeveloped; **manufactures** insignificant.
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC. Occupies East half of Haiti; area, 18,760 sq. m. **Population,** 610,000, mainly composed of a mixed race of European and African blood. Santo Domingo, founded 1496, capital; population, 1909, 18,626. Puerto Plata, chief port.	**DOMINICAN REP.**— **Government** vested in a Cabinet Council composed of the President and seven Ministers. Spanish language prevails. Primary **education** free and obligatory. Number of schools, 1910, 526. State **religion** Roman Catholic; other forms permitted.	**DOMINICAN REP.**— Country is very fertile; about 15,500 sq. m. are cultivable. **Agriculture** and forestry leading industries. Cattle raising and dairy industry receiving attention. Sugar-growing is a flourishing industry. Principal products, tobacco, coffee, cacao, cotton, and sugar cane. **Commerce.**—Principal exports, sugar, tobacco, cacao, coffee, mahogany, logwood, hides, goat-skins, honey, copper and salt. Principal imports: Cotton goods, iron and steel, provisions, rice.

ISLAND POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA

BRITISH AMERICAN ISLANDS.—Bermuda.—Group of 360 coral islands, 580 miles east of North Carolina. Discovered by Bermudez 1522; colonized 1612; constitute British colony. Important naval base. **Area,** 19.3 sq. m. Chief products, onions, potatoes, lily bulbs; exported chiefly to United States, leading source of food supplies. **Climate** mild and delightful. Favorite American winter health resort. Civil population, 18,994. Hamilton, capital and chief town; population, 2,627.

Bahamas.—First point of discovery by Columbus, 1492, San Salvador (Watling I). Settled by British, 1629; ceded to England, 1783; British Crown Colony. Comprises 20 inhabited and many uninhabited islands. **Area,** 4,403 sq. m. **Population.**—55,944. **Climate** equable. Produces sponges, sisal fiber, fruits, pearls, and ambergris. Nassau, capital and chief port; population, 8,000.

Jamaica.—History.—Discovered by Columbus, 1494; colonized by Spain, 1510; became an English possession, 1655. **Area.**—Largest of British West Indies. Area, 4,200 sq. m.; including dependent islands—Turks and Caicos—4,424 sq. m. **Physical Features, etc.**—Surface diversified by picturesque mountains and fertile valleys. Highest elevation of Blue Mountains—principal range—7,423 feet. Island well watered by numerous rivers; has many excellent ports and harbors. Minerals unimportant; deposits of copper, lead, and iron exist in limited quantities. Mineral springs abound. **Climate** superior to that of most West India islands. Temperature varies according to altitude and exposure. Humidity scarcely felt even on sea coasts. **Agriculture** chief industry; principal products, sugar-cane, coffee, bananas, corn, cacao, pimento, nutmeg, and all kinds of tropical fruits and vegetables. Area under tillage 1910, 273,047 acres; under pasture, 653,750. **Commerce.**—Principal exports, bananas, oranges, coffee, rum, ginger, pimento, raw sugar, logwood; chief imports, cotton manufactures, dried and salted fish, flour, ale, beer, and salt. **Population.**—1911, 836,998. **Cities.**—Kingston, capital and leading seaport; population, 57,379. Spanish Town, second city, 7,119. **Education, etc.**—Government elementary schools, 4 training colleges. High and industrial schools, supported by Government. **Religion.**—No established church. Churches: Church of England, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Methodist, Baptist, represented.

Government administered by Governor, appointed by Crown, assisted by Privy Council and Legislative Assembly.

Leeward Islands.—700 sq. m., population, 1901, 127,534, including 5,070 whites. Capital, St. John, Antigua, 9,738.

Windward Isles.—506 sq. m., population, 1901, 160,869.

Barbados.—166 sq. m., population 195,583. Capital, Bridgetown, 30,000.

Trinidad.—1,757 sq. m., population, 1901, 255,148. Principal products: Sugar, cocoa, coffee, cocoa-nuts, asphalt, and coal. Capital, Port of Spain, 34,037.

TOBAGO.—114 sq. m., population, 18,750. Commerce included in Trinidad.

FRENCH AMERICAN ISLANDS.—Guadeloupe.—619 sq. m., population, 1901, 157,800.

Martinique.—382 sq. m., population, 207,000.

St. Pierre and Miquelon.—Islands conceded French possessions 1713. **Area** of group, 93 sq. m.: St. Pierre, 10; Great and Little Miquelon, 83; largely unsuited to **agriculture.** Cod **fishery** leading industry. **Population,** St. Pierre, 1907 4,263. Miquelon, 505. St. Pierre chief town.

DANISH WEST INDIES.—St. Thomas, Sta. Cruz (St. Croix), and St. John, 129 sq. m., population, 1901, 30,500.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.—Venezuelan Islands (Curacao, etc.), St. Martin, etc., 463 sq. m., population, 1900, 53,000.

SOUTH AMERICA

Geographical Facts

Position and Extent.—South America forms the Southern half of the New World. In shape triangular, it extends 4,550 m. from North to South, 3,200 m. from East to West. Its coast-line is far less broken than that of North America, and there are fewer islands. Development of coast-line 15,700 m., or one mile to every 435 sq. m. of mainland.

Area.—7,420,000 sq. m., including dependent islands; greatest length from north to south, 4,592 m.; breadth, 3,230. Principal continental islands: Falkland, South Georgia, Tierra del Fuego, Patagonian Archipelago, Chiloe, Juan Fernandez, Marajo, and Galapagos.

Population.—Estimated at 48,000,000.

Physical Features.—The Andes Mountains extend close to the Pacific, from Southern extremity of the continent as far as the Caribbean Sea, and send a branch eastward into Venezuela. Their parallel ranges enclose several plateaus, among which that of Bolivia (with L. Titicaca, 12,540 ft.) is the most extensive. The loftiest summits are: Aconcagua, 23,080 ft.; Illampu or Peak of Sorata, 21,520 ft.; Chimborazo, 20,600 ft. Isolated mountain regions are the Sierra Nevada de Sta. Marta, on the Caribbean Sea, 16,700 ft.; the Highlands of Guayana (Roraima, 8,500 ft.), and the Brazilian Highlands (Itatiaia, 8,900 ft.). Vast lowland plains, covering altogether nearly 70 p. c. of the total area, lie between these mountains, and open out upon the Atlantic. These plains include the Llanos or Steppelands of the Orinoco, the Selvas or forests of the Amazon River, and the plains of the Rio de la Plata. Mean elevation of the continent, 2,490 ft.

Hydrography. — Nearly the whole drainage is towards the Atlantic. The three great rivers are the Orinoco (drains 328,000 sq. m.), the Amazon (drains 2,700,000 sq. m.), and the Rio de la Plata (drains 1,240,000 sq. m.)

Climate.—The Andes form a sharp climatical boundary, and while the rainfall is generally abundant to the East of them, it is deficient or fails altogether on the Pacific coast, from lat. 4 deg. S. to 30 deg. S.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

Area.—1,139,979 sq. m., divided among 14 provinces and 10 territories.

Population.—6,989,023. Spanish prevailing language throughout the country.

Physical Features. — Greater part of country immense grassy plain; central and eastern part of plain includes the region of the pampas, northern forms larger part of extensive tract called the Gran Chaco; western region mountainous; Argentine Patagonia more elevated and varied in character. Rio de la Plata—Parana and Uruguay sources—chief river system. Several large and beautiful lakes in south; innumerable small

Political and Social Facts

History.—Discovered by Columbus, 1498, landing effected near mouth of Orinoco; continental character ascertained before 1515. Northern coasts explored by Vespucci, 1499-1500; Brazil discovered 1500 by Cabral; mouth of Rio de la Plata entered, 1508. Straits of Magellan discovered, 1519; Peru conquered by Pizarro, 1532. First settlement at Rio de Janeiro by French, 1558; occupied by Portuguese, 1567. English, Dutch, and French settled in Guiana, 1613-74. Nearly entire country conquered by Spanish and Portuguese. Spanish colonies revolted, 1810. War of Independence waged against royalist Spanish armies finally resulted in establishment of various republics.

Population.—Consists of descendants of conquerors—Spaniards and Portuguese mixed races, and Negroes. Mixed races chiefly of European and Indian blood. Spanish prevailing language except in Brazil, where Portuguese is spoken.

Races.—13,360,000 Europeans, 20,062,000 American Indians, 9,072,000 Negroes, 200,000 Asiatic Aryans (Coolies), 33,500 Semites (Jews and Arabs), 56,000 Mongols (Chinese), 4,000 Malays.

Religion.—Dominant religion of all South American countries Roman Catholic; except in Ecuador and Peru all other creeds tolerated.

Government.—Political divisions: Republics of Venezuela, Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina in the east; Chile, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia in west; Bolivia and Paraguay inland; colonies of British Guiana, Surinam (Dutch), and Cayenne (French) in north; Falkland Islands (British).

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.—

History.—Colonized by Spain middle of 16th century, created a vice-royalty 1776; proclaimed independence as United Provinces of the La Plata River 1816; war with Brazil 1825-27; name subsequently changed to Argentine Republic; later to Argentine Confederation, and finally 1860, to Argentine Republic, now its official designation. Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego divided between Argentine and Chile 1881.

Government, etc.—Executive power vested in President—elected for six years; President assisted by a cabinet of eight ministers; President and Vice-President must be Roman Catholics and Argentine by birth;

Natural Resources

Forests.—Tropical forests surpass those of any other region in extent and density. The many valuable trees include mahogany, rosewood, Brazilwood, logwood, gum trees, which furnish copal for varnish, and India rubber. Among medicinal and other plants of value are cinchona or Peruvian bark, and cacao, both well-known articles of commerce; Yerba maté, or Paraguay tea, the shrub from which ipecacuanha is obtained; sarsaparilla, and vanilla.

Agriculture.—Coffee, sugar, and cotton grown in eastern portions of Brazil in region of Andes; cereals in temperate regions of elevated sections; wheat an important article of commerce from Argentina. Cacao, tobacco, indigo, rice, potatoes, and yams cultivated extensively in various localities. Cassava, yielding manioc, Brazilian arrowroot, and tapioca, most important food plant in tropics; cassava and Indian corn staple food plants. Bananas, oranges, limes, lemons, pineapples, dates, figs, olives, and grapes abundant. On the vast grass-covered pampas of the south has developed vast cattle and sheep industry.

Minerals.—Continent contains inexhaustible stores of mineral wealth. Andes regions abound in gold and silver. Richest gold fields now mined those of Colombia, Guiana, Chile, Venezuela, and Brazil. Silver mining most active in Bolivia, Peru, Chile, Colombia, and Argentina. Diamonds found in Brazil and Bolivia; Brazil fields have yielded some of most celebrated stones in the world. Rich emerald mines in Colombia. Other precious stones are opal, topaz, and garnet; lapis lazuli, jasper, alabaster, and marbles also occur. Platinum, mercury, lead, coal, iron, zinc, tin, and sulphur mined. Copper mines of Chile among the most important in the world. Petroleum abundant, especially in Peru and Ecuador. Coal mined extensively in Chile; country possesses vast stores of nitrates, borax, and salt.

Industry and Commerce

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.—

Agriculture, etc.—Great agricultural country. Chief products: Wheat, flax, maize, oats, sugar, cotton, tobacco, and grapes. Excellent European and indigenous fruits abundant; peach, apple, and orange trees now grow wild in many places; olives, figs, and raisins extensively produced in various provinces.

Live Stock.—Argentina almost unrivaled as a grazing country. Vast herds of cattle, sheep, horses, etc., reared. Production of wool one of greatest industries.

Manufactures.—Progress of manufactures notable. Chief manufactures, sugar, liquors, flour, and animal products. Eight large

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
ones throughout the pampas. Aconcagua, highest peak in South America, within the boundary. **Cities.**—Buenos Aires, capital of Republic; first city in size in South America; population, 1911, 1,329,697. Rosario, second in commercial importance; population, 201,268. Cordoba, seat of a University, and of a National Observatory; population, 95,000. La Plata, population, 100,608. Tucuman, population, 74,865.	not eligible to re-election. Legislature vested in Congress of two houses. **Education, etc.**—Primary education free, secular, and compulsory universities at Cordoba, Buenos Aires, and La Plata. Industrial School of Buenos Aires maintained by National Government. State church, Roman Catholic; all other creeds are tolerated.	establishments (1909) engaged in slaughtering cattle and sheep for freezing and export. **Minerals.**—Mining industry almost entirely undeveloped. Gold, silver, copper, tungsten ore, and coal are worked· galena, argentiferous lead, iron, bismuth, borate of lime, salt, and petroleum also found. **Forests.**—Large areas are covered with magnificent forests of rich hard woods. A large per cent of entire area of Santiago del Esterro occupied by dense forests; sawing of its valuable woods the leading industry of the Province. **Commerce** of Argentina has increased with great rapidity.
Leading articles of import are cotton and other textiles, coal, iron, and steel manufactures, railway equipment. Principal exports are pastoral and agricultural, forest, and mineral products.		
BOLIVIA **Area.**—708,195 sq. m., divided into 8 departments, and two divisions called territories. **Population.** — 2,267,935; composed of Indians, whites, mixed races, negroes, and others, unclassified. **Physical Features.**—Western section, traversed by Andes, loftiest and largest plateau in America; Titicaca on western boundary most elevated lake of South America; altitude, 12,000 feet; area, 3,261 sq. m. Northern and eastern regions consist of vast undulating plains and high valleys of Amazon Basin. Llanos and pampas of southeastern Bolivia merge into the Gran Chaco in north. Volcanoes, numerous. Highest elevations, Illampu and Cacacamanli, over 21,000 feet. **Cities.** La Paz, capital, commercial center and largest city; population 80,000. Cochabamba, population 24,502. Sucre, official capital; population, 23,416. Potosi, population 23,450. Oruro, population 20,070.	**BOLIVIA.**— **History.**—Country formed part of Inca Empire. Under Spanish rule called Upper Peru until 1825; independence gained, 1825, and name changed to Bolivia in honor of Bolivar, who drafted first constitution. Allied with Peru against Chile, 1878; was defeated and later ceded its seaboard and nitrate deposits to Chile. **Government, etc.**—Executive branch vested in President; term four years; Vice-Presidents, 2. Legislative in National Congress of two Chambers. **Education, etc.**—Primary instruction free and nominally compulsory. Number of institutions for secondary instruction and for higher education. Has military college and schools of arts and trades. State religion, Roman Catholic; exercise of other forms permitted	**BOLIVIA.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Tropical fruits, coffee, cacao, tobacco and sugar cane flourish in lower valleys. Wheat, maize, barley, beans, potatoes produced—mostly for local consumption. Forests contain numerous valuable woods, among them the cinchona tree from the bark of which quinine is manufactured. Cocoa, india rubber, and quinoa are among other products. Cattle, sheep, and llamas numerous. **Minerals** chief wealth of country; nearly all known metals found; copper, tin, and bismuth mines among the world's richest. Chief deposits of silver in the province of Potosi. There are extensive deposits of coal and salt. Antimony, lead, zinc, gold, and borax mined. **Commerce** carried on chiefly through Chilean ports. Chief imports—cattle, provisions, wines, hardware, textiles, machinery, and clothing. Tin valued at about $14,000,000 was exported; silver and copper next in importance.
BRAZIL **Area.**—3,218,130 sq. m. Divided into 20 states and 1 national territory, and the federal district. **Population.** — Estimated, 21,461,100. White population largely of Portuguese descent. In northern provinces Indian element predominates; in eastern, negroes numerous. **Physical Features.** — Two distinct physical regions; Tropical lowlands of north and west and temperate uplands of center and south; northern and western districts include the "Selvas," or forests, drained by the Amazon and its tributaries; eastern and southern districts mountainous. Mountains and large portion of Amazon basin covered with forests; great variety of valuable timber and medicinal plants. Brazil noted for large, navigable rivers; Amazon drains 800,000 sq. m.; San Francisco, Parana, Uruguay and Paraguay are others. **Cities.**—Rio de Janeiro, capital, largest city, and principal seaport. Sao Paulo, one of oldest Brazilian towns, Bahia, second seaport; Pernambuco, has large export trade in sugar and cotton. Para, or Belem, center of Amazon River trade	**BRAZIL.**— **History.**—Discovered and taken possession of for Portugal by Pedro Alvares Cabral, 1500; coast touched by other navigators previously. Settled by Portuguese, 1531; invasions from French, Dutch, and British, 1555-1640. Became a vice-royalty, 1640, with Rio de Janeiro as capital. Royal family of Portugal fled to Brazil, 1807; Colony declared a kingdom, 1815; proclaimed independence of Portugal, 1822. Republic proclaimed, 1889. **Government, etc.**—Executive authority exercised by President; term, four years; not eligible for succeeding term; legislative, vested in National Congress. Each State has its own government, distinct and independent in local affairs. **Education, etc.**—Primary instruction free; compulsory in some states; in Federal District is under municipality; in States, under municipal and State authority. Trade schools in many States.	**BRAZIL.**— **Agriculture.**—Products of the soil and forests chief sources of wealth. Brazil leading coffee producer of world; crop, average 12,000,000 bags. Cacao, rubber, sugar cane, cotton, tobacco, cereals, vegetables, maté—Paraguay tea—fruits and nuts are other important crops. Rice culture progressing. Cattle industry important. **Manufactures.**—Industrial establishments numbered about 3,400 in 1910. Textiles, chiefly cotton goods, lead. Flour mills, sugar mills, and breweries also included among industrial establishments. **Minerals.**—Resources great but little utilized; gold, diamonds, manganese and monazite are among the most stable and substantial exports; coal and mercury are also mined; iron exists in immense quantities. Other precious stones, copper, bismuth, petroleum, etc., also found. **Commerce** chiefly with the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France. Chief imports were coal, flour, cottons, codfish, jerked beef, railway material, and wines. Exports are coffee, tobacco, rubber, hides, cacao, sugar, cotton.

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
CHILE **Physical Features.**—Country lies between crest of Andes and the Pacific Ocean. Chilean Andes, eastern boundary, great natural feature of country. Saline pampas of north traversed by volcanic highlands; Central Chile diversified by well-watered plains and valleys—parallel ranges of mountains extend in this region to sea; Southern Chile, a region of large lakes, islands, and glaciers, with dense forests. **Area.**—292,580 sq. m. Extreme length over 2,600 m.; average width, 90 m. **Population.**—3,249,279—great majority of European origin. Central district most populous. Immigration encouraged by Government. **Cities.**—Santiago, capital; largest city in Western South America; has many public institutions. Valparaiso, most important seaport on Pacific coast of South America. Concepcion has large trade; chief manufacturing center.	**CHILE.—** **History.**—Invaded by Spaniards 1535-36; Santiago founded 1541; war with Araucanians extended over more than a century. Spanish authority dis-established 1810; re-established later. Independence declared 1818. War with Bolivia and Peru 1879-84. **Government, etc.**—Executive power exercised by President, elected for 5 years, assisted by Council of State and a Cabinet or Ministry; President not eligible to re-election. Legislative power vested in National Congress. **Education, etc.**—Education free; not compulsory. University and National Institute, Santiago. State church, Roman Catholic; all others respected and protected.	**CHILE.—** **Agriculture** and stock-farming important. Central region chief agricultural district. Large quantities of cereals, wine, fruit, and vegetables produced annually. Large numbers of cattle, horses, sheep, goats, etc., reared annually. **Manufactures** include food substitutes, alcoholic beverages, textiles, clothing, leather, wood work, and paper. **Forests.**—Nearly 200 timbers are indigenous. Evergreens attain gigantic size. Woods valuable for building, ornamental work, etc., exist in great abundance. **Minerals.**—Mining foremost industry; northern district the mining region; nitrate deposits most extensive in world. Enormous deposits of borate also; deposits of guano along coast. Coal, copper, silver, gold, iodine, and other minerals also produced. **Commerce.**—Chief imports: Textiles, oil, and coal, and machinery. Principal exports, mineral products—nitrate chiefly.
COLOMBIA **Physical Features, Area, etc.**—Area, 438,436 sq. m. West traversed by three ranges of Andes; highest elevation, Mount Tolima, 18,400 feet. Surface of east consists of broad plains sloping to Orinoco and Amazon rivers. Principal rivers of west, Magdalena and Cauca. Extensive forests yield many valuable products; India rubber, Tolu balsam, copaiba, vegetable ivory, cinchona—first studied here 1793—and coca. **Population. — Cities.** —Population, 4,320,000. Bogota, capital; population, 150,000. Chief commercial towns—Barranquilla, Medellin, Bucaramanga, and Cartagena.	**COLOMBIA** **History.**—First settlements made by Spanish; became a Spanish presidency, 1563; a vice-royalty of Spain, 1718. War for independence 1810-19; Republic of Colombia formed, 1819; Republic of New Granada established, 1831. Name Granadine Confederation adopted, 1858; United States of Colombia, 1863; and later Republic of Colombia. **Government, etc.**—Executive rests with President—chosen for 4 years—assisted by cabinet. Legislative in Congress of two houses. **Education, etc.**—Primary education gratuitous, but not compulsory. Has national university and three other colleges. Prevailing religion, Roman Catholic; other forms permitted	**COLOMBIA.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Small proportion of land under culture. Products include coffee, cacao, tobacco, sugar, maize, cotton, wheat, bananas, etc. Cattle, swine, sheep and horses, in order named. **Minerals** varied and of great value. Gold, silver, copper, platinum, lead, mercury, cinnabar, manganese, and emeralds are produced. Coal and petroleum deposits extensive. Salt mines north of Bogota government monopoly; great source of revenue. Emerald mines and pearl fisheries also government monopolies. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, provisions, cotton goods, and petroleum. Chief export, coffee; other exports—cattle, hides, rubber, tobacco, ivory nuts, mineral products, etc.
ECUADOR **Physical Features. — Area.** — 116,000 sq. miles; Galapagos Islands, 2,400. Country traversed north to south by Andes; contains some of the highest peaks in South America and numerous volcanoes; highest elevations, Chimborazo, 20,498 feet; Cotopaxi, 19,613 feet; between the mountains are several elevated table-lands. Principal rivers tributaries of Amazon; Napo and Pastaza largest, Coast line, 2,000 miles; affords many good harbors. Vast equatorial forests exist, affording excellent woods and medicinal plants. **Population — Cities.** —Population, 1,500,000—mainly Indian. Quito, capital of Republic and ancient capital of Incas. Guayaquil, chief seaport and trade and manufacturing center. Cuenca, third city; has cathedral and university.	**ECUADOR** **History.**—At time of Spanish conquest, 1533-34, greater part of country subject to Incas of Peru. Made part of vice-royalty of Peru, 1542; Spanish rulers expelled and country entered Colombian Confederation, 1822-23; republic proclaimed under present name, 1830. Country has since suffered greatly from political revolutions. **Government, etc.**—Executive vested in President (term four years), Legislative in Congress of two houses, members elected by adults who can read and write. **Education, etc.**—Primary instruction free and compulsory. For secondary, higher and professional education there are several institutions—principally in Quito. Religion, Roman Catholic; none other tolerated.	**ECUADOR.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Cacao great commercial crop. Rubber, sugar, coffee, bananas, and rice also cultivated. Ivory nuts produced for export. Tobacco, cereals, and potatoes successfully grown on plateaux. Panama hats made almost exclusively in Ecuador. **Minerals.**—Ecuador rich in gold, mercury, copper, iron, lead and coal; large deposits of sulphur; silver and petroleum also exist. Mineral deposits, however, but slightly developed. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, textiles and foodstuffs; chief exports, cacao, rubber, ivory nuts, Panama hats, gold (metal and ore). Exports chiefly to France and United States.
PARAGUAY **Physical Features, etc.**—Surface largely undulating plains; interior, low hills or mountains richly wooded. Principal rivers, Paraguay and Parana. Various minerals, such as quartz, agate, opals, kaolin, iron,	**PARAGUAY** **History.**—First settled by Spanish Jesuits in 17th century; later by Spanish and Portuguese colonists; as Spanish province annexed to vice-royalty of La Plata 1776; united with Brazil 1821; revolted	**PARAGUAY.—** **Forests.**—Timber and other products an important source of wealth; immense number of hard wood and other timber trees; several species of dye wood; trees yielding resins and gums, as india

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
manganese, copper and mercury, exist. **Population.** — 752,000 — chiefly mixed races, descendants of Spaniards, Guarani Indians, and negroes. **Climate.** — Semi-tropical and healthful; winters mild; occasional frosts occur at night. Mean annual temperature, 75 deg.; rainfall abundant; greatest in September and October. **Cities.**—Asuncion, capital and largest city in Republic, founded 1536; seat of a cathedral and a National college; population, 84,000. Villa Rica, second in size and commercial importance; center of noted tobacco region; population, 26,000. Concepcion, flourishing town on Paraguay River, 250 m. northeast of Asuncion; population, 15,000.	1825; Independence recognized 1828; Republic constituted 1830. **Government, etc.**—Executive authority vested in a President elected for 4 years; legislative vested in a Congress of two Houses, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. **Education, etc.**—Education free and compulsory. Private schools are subsidized by Council of Education. National college at Asuncion. State church, Roman Catholic; exercise of other religions permitted.	rubber, varnish, and quebracho, for tanning; also the valuable shrub Yerba maté. Medicinal plants abound in great variety. **Agriculture** the principal source of wealth; soil and climate adapted for nearly all tropical and temperate-zone growths. Yerba maté, "Paraguay tea," chief and most distinctive crop. Tobacco produced; cotton indigenous—grows abundantly; maize manioc, sugar cane, coffee, rice, beans, etc., also produced. Orange growing important; bananas, grapes, and other fruits abundant. **Live Stock** industry constantly increasing; large areas of excellent pasture favor a wide development. **Manufactures, etc.**—Production of quebracho extract; preparation of oil of petit grain, distilled from the leaves of the native orange tree, a lucrative industry. Chief exports: maté, jerked beef, tallow, hides, and quebracho extract.
PERU **Area.**—679,600 sq. m. Negotiations in progress to determine ownership of Tacna and Arica. **Population.** — Approximately 4,500,000, or 6.6 per sq. m.—less than one-fourth the population per sq. m. of the United States. **Physical Features.** — Surface largely an elevated plateau traversed by chains of Andes. Coast region arid, intersected by few mountain streams. High plateau of central section includes western part of Lake Titicaca. Montana consists of extensive wooded plains at the eastern base of the Andes, drained by Amazon—principal river—and its tributaries. Highest elevation, Huascan, 22,051 feet. **Cities.**—Lima, capital and leading commercial city; Callao, chief port; Arequipa, cathedral town of great wealth. Cuzco, center of rich agricultural district.	**PERU** **History.**—Under Incas and their predecessors civilization highly developed. Conquered by Spaniards, 1533-34; as vice-royalty of Spain, became, 1544, center of government of all South America. Declared independence, 1821; Spain finally defeated, 1824; war with Chile, 1879-84; was defeated and lost portion of territory. **Government.**—Entrusted to President; term four years; legislative in a Senate and House of Representatives. **Education, etc.**—Elementary education nominally compulsory. A central university—oldest in America—military school and school of mines and civil engineering at Lima. State religion Roman Catholic; others tolerated to limited extent.	**PERU.—** **Agriculture, etc.** — Cotton, coffee, cacao, sugar and rice chief productions. Principal coffee-growing districts in Central Peru. Coast region chief sugar district. Wheat, maize, olives, ramie and tobacco also grown. Attention being given to silk culture and viticulture. Valuable medicinal plants cultivated; district of Otuzco most important coca-growing section. India rubber and cinchona bark among other products of forests. Wool-bearing animals—alpaca, sheep, and llama. **Manufactures** chiefly coarse cottons, woolens, leathers, fine cloaks and blankets. Panama hats, gold and silver jewelry. Olive oil. cocaine, and rum extensively produced. **Minerals.**—Output includes copper, silver, crude petroleum, coal, gold, lead, etc. About 70 per cent of the world's outpu of vanadium produced by Peru. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, cotton and woolen goods, minerals, coal, machinery, etc.; exports—cotton, sugar, wool, minerals, etc. Chief exports: Sugar, metals, and other minerals, cotton, gums, wool, guano, cocaine.
URUGUAY **Physical Features, etc.**—Coast region low; interior extensive grassy plains traversed by low mountain ridges. Uruguay, principal river, forming western boundary; basin of its chief tributary, Rio Negro, occupies entire central portion. Numerous lakes and extensive swamps in east. **Area.**—Smallest South American Republic. Area, 72,110 sq. m., divided among 19 departments. **Population.**—1,094,688 — foreigners, 198,154. **Cities.**—Montevideo, capital and commercial center; Salto, limit of navigation on Uruguay River. Paysandu exports preserved meats; Maldonado, seaport and naval station.	**URUGUAY.—** **History.**—First settled by Spanish Jesuits in 17th century; later by Spanish and Portuguese colonists; as Spanish province annexed to vice-royalty of La Plata 1776; united with Brazil 1821; revolted 1825; Independence recognized 1828; Republic constituted 1830. **Government, etc.**—Executive vested in President; term, 4 years. Legislative vested in Parliament of two houses. **Education.**—Primary, Compulsory. University, Montevideo. State religion, Roman Catholic; others tolerated.	**URUGUAY.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Most characteristic feature of country the vast pastures. Rearing of cattle and sheep leading industry. Cereal productions, wheat, olives, vegetables and fruits successfully grown. Tobacco cultivated. Wine produced. American ostrich reared in large numbers. **Minerals.**—Gold has been produced in paying quantities, and coal also is mined. Asbestos, antimony, graphite, copper-silver, copper-iron and iron found in various sections; petroleum, gems and semi-precious stones known to exist. **Commerce.** — Exports, live cattle, sheep, horses, cattle hides, jerked beef, mutton carcasses, tallow, wool, and ostrich feathers.

SOUTH AMERICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
VENEZUELA **Population.** — 2,713,703. Evidences of an older civilization exist in rock pictures, ceramic remains, etc. **Cities.**—Caracas, capital. La Guaira, leading seaport. Valencia, finely situated commercial center. Maracaibo, seaport; export trade large. **Area — Physical Features.** — Area, 393,976 sq. m. Country mountainous in north and west; central portion bordering Orinoco vast grassy plains; surface southeast mountainous with dense forests Entire course of Orinoco within the country. Lake Maracaibo in north. Delta of Orinoco, basin of Maracaibo, and mountainous districts covered with forests; products, rubber, copal, sarsaparilla, cinchona, tonka beans, timber, dyewoods.	**VENEZUELA** **History.**—Country discovered by Columbus, 1498; settled by Spanish; Spanish dominion continued until series of insurrections 1810-21, resulted in country entering Colombian Confederation. Republic of Venezuela proclaimed, 1830. **Government, etc.**—Executive vested in President chosen for four years. Legislative in Congress of two houses. **Education, etc.**—Education free and compulsory. Normal schools, universities, national colleges. State religion, Roman Catholic; other creeds tolerated.	**VENEZUELA.—** **Agriculture** leading industry; coffee—estates number 33,000. Cacao estates, 5,000. Annual production of sugar about 3,000 tons. Cultivation of tobacco an important industry. Rice and other cereals, cotton, etc., also grown. Number of cattle, goats, and pigs raised. **Minerals.**—Gold, copper, silver, iron and salt profitably mined; asphaltum and coal also produced. Petroleum, tin, lead, sulphur, and kaolin exist; pearls found along coast. **Commerce.**—Imports, cotton textiles, flour, rice, and hardware. Exports, coffee, cacao, balata gum and rubber, hides, cattle, gold.

FOREIGN POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA

GUIANA

A region extending from Orinoco to Amazon River. Politically divided among Venezuela, Brazil, Great Britain, Netherlands, and France. Coasts of Colonial Guiana low and swampy. Interior undulating plains, dense forests of valuable timber, and low mountains; intersected by numerous rivers—Essequibo, longest. Mt. Roraima, 8,600 feet, highest elevation.

FRENCH GUIANA (CAYENNE).—Area, about 30,500 sq. m. **Products,** rice, maize, manioc, sugar cane, tafia, cacao, coffee, spices, etc. Gold mining principal industry. **Population,** 49,009. Cayenne, capital and chief seaport; population, 13,527. Colony under Governor assisted by a Council-General and Municipal Councils; represented in France by one Deputy.

BRITISH GUIANA.—Area, 90,277 sq. m. **Chief product,** sugar. Country rich in gold. **Population,** 296,000. Georgetown, capital; population, 53,176. Governor (appointed by Crown), assisted by an Executive Council and a legislative body.

SURINAM or DUTCH GUIANA.—Area, 46,060 sq. m. **Chief products,** sugar and cacao. Other products: Bananas, coffee, rice, maize, rum, molasses. **Population,** 85,094. Paramaribo, capital; population, 35,082. **Government** administered by Governor, assisted by a Council.

Falkland Islands.—About 300 miles east of Straits of Magellan. Discovered 1592. Belonged successively to France and Spain; became a British possession 1833. **Area,** 6,500 sq. m.; East Falkland, 3,000; West Falkland, 2,300; about 100 smaller islands, 1,200. Islands treeless, but well covered with grass. Highest elevation Mount Adam, 2,315 feet. **Climate,** healthful. Sheep farming leading industry. Exports Wool, hides, skins, tallow, whale oil, etc.; imports, provisions, clothing, timber, etc. **Population,** 2,272. Chief town Stanley, population, about 800. **Government** administered by the Governor, assisted by an Executive and a Legislative Council.

Curacao.—Colony of six islands belonging to Netherlands. **Area,** 403 sq. m. **Chief products,** maize, pulse, cattle, etc. **Population,** 52,741. Seaport, Willemstad, population, 15,000. Ruled by Governor and Council appointed by Sovereign.

EUROPE

Geographical Facts

Position and Area.—Europe is geographically merely a peninsula of Asia. It is bounded by the Arctic Ocean, the open Atlantic and the Mediterranean, and separated from Africa and Asia only by narrow straits. Development of coastline 19,820 m., or one mile of coast to every 182 sq. m. Extent from the North C. to C. Matapan 2,400 m., from C. St. Vincent to the Kara Strait 3,455 m. If Asiatic boundary be taken to be a line following Ural Mountains, Ural River, Caspian Sea, and Valley of Manych, area is about 3,750,000 sq. m. With addition of Iceland, Novaya Zemlya and Spitsbergen is 3,860,000 sq. m.

Population.—449,000,000. Including wastes of Russia and Scandinavia, average for Continent about 112 inhabitants to sq. m.

Physical Features. — The Alps (Mt. Blanc 15,700 ft.) form the backbone of the most vital part of the continent, and constitute a well-marked physical boundary between North and South. They send branches into Italy and the Balkan Peninsula, and reappear eastward in the Carpathians (Tatra 8,740 ft.). On their outer side they are encircled by the Cevennes, the Jura, and other ranges, the land thus enclosed constituting a tableland. Isolated mountain-ranges are those of Scandinavia, of the Iberian Peninsula (Pyrenees 11,170 ft.) and the Ural. The "great Lowland" of Europe stretches from the Pyrenees to the Ural, and from the Arctic to the Black Sea. It covers over two million sq. m. Minor plains are those of Hungary, of Roumania, and of the Po.

Hydrography.—Rivers are numerous, and give ready access to the heart of the continent. The only continental basin is that of the Caspian Sea, fed by the Volga (drainage area 563,630 sq. m.). Other large rivers are: Danube (315,416 sq. m.), Dnieper (203,480 sq. m.), Don (166,120 sq. m.) Dwina (141,080 sq. m.), Pechora (127,260 sq. m.), and Rhine (86,640 sq. m.). Ladoga (7,000 sq. m.) is the largest lake.

Climate.—The greater part of Europe lies within the temperate zone, and owing to the beneficent influence of the Gulf Stream the extremes of heat and cold are moderated, and the rainfall is sufficient. Under the Arctic circle, on the coast of Norway, the mean temperature is the same as at Quebec.

Political and Social Facts

History.—European history goes back to at least 3d millennium B. C. Grecian civilization dominant from 8th century B. C. on; Roman Republic founded 6th century. Zenith of Roman power 96-180 A. D. Empire embraced Italy, Spain, Gaul, Britain, Balkan Peninsula, Greece, etc. Empire divided into Eastern and Western 395. Barbarians pillaged Rome 5th century. Empire of Charlemagne, 8th century, extended from Elbe to Ebro, North Sea to Adriatic; from it were formed France, Italy, Germany, 9th century. Normans (Northmen) established in France 10th century, conquered England, 1066. Turks masters of Byzantine Empire 15th century. Union of Christian power in Spain 1479; climax 16th century. Reformation beginning with Wyclif (England 1380) and Huss (Bohemia 1412) spread in Germany, Switzerland, France, Hungary, Bohemia, Scandinavia, Netherlands, Scotland, and England 16th century. Napoleon conquered Italy, Austria, Prussia, Spain, Holland, and smaller States 1796-1807; Russia, England, Sweden, Prussia, Austria, united to crush Napoleon 1813-14; balance of power restored 1815.

Government. — Three great State-systems (according to language or nationality), viz.: 1. Teutonic States, 830,078 sq. m., population 150,850,000, of whom Teutons 83 per cent. 2. Greco-Latin States (including Belgium and Roumania) 629,227 sq. m., population 112,555,200, of whom Greco-Latin 94 per cent. 3. Slav States (including Bosnia) 2,161,446 sq. m., population 128,286,000, of whom Slavs 82 per cent. 4. Hungary, 125,611 sq. m., population 20,025,000, of whom Magyars 45 per cent. 5. Turkey, 67,910 sq. m., population 6,130,000, of whom Turks 12 per cent.

Political divisions of Europe comprise four empires—Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey; thirteen kingdoms—Great Britain and Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Spain, Italy, Greece, Roumania, Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro; four republics—France, Switzerland, Portugal, San Marino; two principalities—Monaco, Liechtenstein; the protected republic of Andorra, and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

Races. — 1. European Aryans, 384,957,000, including 134,073,000 Teutons, 116,056,000 Greco-Latins, 131,221,000 Slavs. 2. Asiatic Aryans (Gypsies, etc.) 654,000. 3. Semites (Jews, etc.) 8,965,000. 4. Mongolians (Turks and Tartars, Magyars, Finns, etc.) 23,264,000.

Religion.—More than 95 per cent of inhabitants of Europe Christian. In the south one-half the Christians Roman Catholics; remainder about equally divided between Protestants and adherents of Greek Church. Mohammedanism religion of Turks and some other inhabitants of the east. Jews scattered over entire Continent

Natural Resources

Agriculture, etc.—Continent adapted to all food plants of temperate zone. Chief cereals cultivated from prehistoric times, wheat, barley, millet having been found beside lake dwellings in Switzerland of Stone Age. Russia and France principal wheat-growing countries; hardier grains—rye, barley, oats—grown in most sections. Flax and hemp widely cultivated. Many plants introduced from other countries now domesticated; potato and tobacco—from America—widely grown; maize a valuable crop in Austria, Italy, Roumania. From Asia came the vine, fig, apricot, orange, lemon, mulberry, rice, and cotton. Subtropical fruits grow luxuriantly in France and southern peninsulas. Area adapted to culture of vine comprises about three-sevenths of Europe.

Minerals.—Europe abundantly supplied with useful metals; deposits of precious metals limited. Coal mines in Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, and France. Iron produced in great quantities in Germany, Great Britain, France, and Spain; highest grade obtained in Sweden. Lead mined in various localities, principally in Germany and Spain. Spain has richest copper mines in Europe. Tin obtained only in Cornwall and the Hartz Mountains; mercury confined to Spain—most important mines—Austria and Germany. Most extensive salt deposits found in Austria-Hungary. Gold found in paying quantities in the Ural and Hartz mountains; silver in Germany, Russia, Austria, and Sardinia. World's supply of potash from Germany.

Industry and Commerce

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Area of Austria, 115,903 sq. m., including Bosnia and Herzegovina, 135,671 sq. m.; Hungary, including Croatia and Slavonia, 125,430.

Climate.—Characterized by extremes of temperature, warmest region along Adriatic coast. Rainfall least abundant in interiors of Bohemia and Moravia.

Physical Features. — Three-fourths of surface mountains or hills; country traversed by three great systems; Alps (Ortler Spitze, 12,800

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.—

History.—Austria acquired by Ottocar of Bohemia, 1254; by Rudolph of Hapsburg, Emperor of Germany, 1278; declared an archduchy, 1453. Acquired Netherlands, 1477; Spain, 1496. Emperor Charles V reigned over Germany, Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Spain, Netherlands, 1519-1556. Thirty Years' War—1618-1648—resulted in the acknowledged independence of Switzerland and Holland, cession of Alsace to France, autonomy of

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.—

Commerce.—Imports, raw cotton, coal and coke, wool, machinery, silk. Exports, timber, sugar, poultry and eggs, live stock. Almost half of trade with Germany; United States ranks second in imports, Italy in exports.

Agriculture, etc.—Leading crops: Wheat, oats, rye, barley. Barley and wine chief agricultural exports. Forests administered under State by trained officials; area under pine, 14,563,446 acres.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
feet), Bohemian, and Moravian mountains, and Carpathians (Gerlsdorf Spitze, 8,700 feet). Principal rivers: Danube—with its tributaries, waters more than two-thirds of Empire—Dniester, Theiss, Vistula, Elbe. Largest lake, Balaton, in Hungary. **AUSTRIA. — Population.** — 28,574,155; per sq. m., 246. In 1900 there were 9,171,614 Germans, 5,955,397 Czechs and Slovaks, 4,252,483 Poles, and 3,381,570 Ruthenians. **Cities.**—Vienna, capital, seat of civil and military government, population, 2,031,498. Prague, important commercial, manufacturing, and railway center; 223,791. Trieste, chief seaport; 229,475. **HUNGARY. — Population.** — 20,840,678. **Cities.**—Budapest, capital—adjoining towns Pest and Buda incorporated 1873 under above title; Buda, seat of administration; Pest, commercial district; population, 880,371. Szegedin, in grain district, 118,328. **Bosnia** and **Herzegovina.**—Occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary since 1878. In 1908, the Emperor-King's rule extended over the two provinces. **Area,** 19,768 sq. m. **Population,** 1,898,044, chiefly Servian. Sarajevo, Bosnia, capital and principal city; population, 51,919. **Liechtenstein.**—Principality lying between Province of Tyrol and Rhine; practically part of Austrian Empire, though not incorporated by treaty. **Area,** 65 sq. m. **Population,** 9,854—agricultural and nearly all Catholics Corn, wine, flax, fruit, timber, chief products.	German States. Seven Years' War, 1756-63. Emperor Francis of Germany assumed title of Emperor of Austria, 1804; joined allies against Napoleon, 1813. Austria head of German Confederation, 1815; retired, 1866. Austro - Hungarian Monarchy formed, 1867. Entered Triple Alliance with Germany and Italy, 1883. As an ally of Germany took a leading part in the European War, 1914. **Government.**—Austria - Hungary an hereditary dual Monarchy. Common head of monarchy Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary. Each State has its own Parliament, ministry, and administration. Affairs common to the two States: Foreign affairs, military and naval affairs, and finance relating to common affairs. **Education.**—Elementary education free and compulsory. Has 8 State universities. **Religion.**—All legally recognized religions equal. In 1900, 52 per cent of population Roman Catholic, 15 per cent Greek Oriental 19 per cent Protestant; 9.64 per cent Greek Catholic.	Live stock consists of horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. **Manufactures, etc.**—Over 3 million wage-earners engaged in all productive industries. Bohemia, the Austrian provinces, Silesia, and Moravia, chief industrial regions. Textiles, exported for Balkan trade, glassware, pottery, musical instruments, sugar refining, brewing, iron and steel most important. **Minerals.**—Country rich in metals and minerals. Value of mining products, 1910, $63,500,364. Coal, $56,005,463; iron, $4,545,938; silver, $677,144; gold, $118,796. **HUNGARY.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Chief industry, together with forestry. Leading crops. Wheat, oats, rye, corn, potatoes, tobacco, sugar beets. Area under vineyards, 618,090 acres; wine product, 28,776,000 gallons. Forests under State administration. **Live Stock, etc.**—Horses, asses and mules, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. Silk culture: In 1910 cocoons produced equaled 1,877 metric tons. Bee culture: Product, 4,108 metric tons; honey, 245 tons wax. **Manufactures** include woodenware, clothing, metals, machinery, textiles, crockery, glass, chemicals, beer, alcohol, beet sugar, tobacco (State monopoly). **Minerals.**—Mineral products: coal, iron ore, salt works.
Capital, Vaduz. Inhabitants pay no taxes, and not liable to military service.		
BELGIUM **Area and Physical Features.**—Area, 11,373 sq. m. Surface generally level; eastern division includes wooded region of Ardennes. **Climate.** — Temperate and healthful. **Population.**—7,500,000; per sq. m., 589. Official language French; Flemish language used largely. **Cities.**—Brussels, capital; population, 665,806. Antwerp, chief seaport; 320,640. Liege, manufactures machinery, hardware, firearms, etc.; 174,768. Ghent, 165,149. **Colonial Possessions.**—Belgian Congo. (For details, see under Africa).	**BELGIUM.—** **History.** — Kingdom at one time formed part of Roman and Frankish domains; passed to Austria as Austrian Netherlands 1713; conquered and annexed by France 1794; united with Netherlands as kingdom 1815; established as separate kingdom 1830; Limburg and Luxemburg divided between Belgium and Netherlands 1839. Took prominent part in the European War, 1914, on side of Russia, France and England. **Government.**—A constitutional hereditary monarchy. Executive powers vested in King. Legislative in King. Senate, and Chamber of Representatives. **Education, etc.**—Primary education free. Universities at Brussels, Ghent, Liege, and Louvain, and various technical schools. Roman Catholic religion prevails. Complete religious toleration exists.	**BELGIUM.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Chief products: Oats, wheat, rye, potatoes, beets. Forests cover 17 per cent of area. Live stock consists of horses, cattle, and hogs. **Manufactures, etc.**—Textile industries, iron and glass manufactures lead. Firearms, machinery, etc., largely made. Beet sugar output, 239,370 tons refined sugar. Ghent center of textile, Liege of iron industry. **Minerals.**—Coal, iron ore, zinc. **Commerce.**—Chief imports: Cereals, raw textiles, rubber, drugs, timber. Principal exports: Yarns, linen and wool, iron and steel products, coal, coke, textiles, glass.
BULGARIA **Physical Features.** — The physical aspects of eastern Roumelia are varied, the surface in the west being broken up by the offshoots of the Albanian ranges, and in the north and northeast by the Balkans and their spurs. The north of Bulgaria is a fertile plain and hilly country; the south is wooded and mountainous. A fine waterway on	**BULGARIA.—** **History.**—Colonized by Bulgarians, a Slavonic tribe, 6th century; during 9th-10th century, and again in 12th, their rule extended over nearly all of Balkan Peninsula; annexed to Ottoman Empire, 1396. By Treaty of Berlin, 1878, constituted an autonomous principality under suzerainty of Turkey; Eastern Roumelia, now South Bulgaria,	**BULGARIA.—** **Agriculture** occupation of five-sevenths of population; soil generally fertile; wheat principal crop; wine, tobacco, silk, also produced; roses largely cultivated on southern slopes of Balkans; attar of roses largely manufactured. **Live Stock,** sheep, goats, cattle, pigs, horses. **Manufactures,** textiles, cigars,

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
the northern boundary affords an outlet to the Black Sea. **Area.**—38,080 sq. m. **Population.**—4,329,108. **Climate.**—Characterized by wide range of temperature and abrupt changes. **Cities.**—Capital, Sofia; population, 1910, 102,769. Philippopolis, Roumelia; population, 47,929. Rustchuk, fortified town on Danube; has arsenal, port, and royal palace; population, 35,823.	incorporated with State, 185.8 Independence declared, 1908. **Government** vested in King, Council of Ministers, and a Sobranje, or National Assembly. **Education.**—Free, nominally obligatory. National church, Orthodox Greek; adherents, 3,345,991; Protestants, 5,402; Catholics, 29,-442.	cigarettes. Domestic products include carpets, trimmings, ribbons, and hosiery. **Commerce** largely with Austria, Turkey, and Germany. Principal item, wheat; other exports include live stock, woolens, attar of roses, and skins. Imports, chiefly coal, iron, building timber, and machinery. **Minerals** belong to State; iron and coal exist in large quantities also gold, silver, manganese, copper and salt.
DENMARK **Area, etc.**—Area, 15,582 sq. m. Surface low, undulating plains diversified by heaths, marshes, and lakes; highest altitude 560 feet. **Population.**—2,775,076; density per sq. m., 178. **Cities.**—Copenhagen, capital, commercial center; population, 426,-161. Aarhus, 61,755; Odense, 42,237. **Colonial Possessions.**—Iceland, Greenland, and Danish West Indies. (For details of last two, see under Polar Regions and North America). **ICELAND.**—Settled by Norsemen about 870. United with Norway 1262. Passed to Denmark 1380. **Area,** 39,756 sq. m. Surface generally mountainous; about one-fourteenth meadow land. Many active volcanoes Hekla most famous. Subject to earthquakes. Hot springs throughout island. **Climate,** moist, tempered by Gulf Stream. **Population,** 85,089. Chief products: Sheep, cattle, ponies, and fish. Capital, Reykjavik; population, 6,682.	**DENMARK.**— **History.**—Viking age — 700-1050—included reign of Canute the Great, King of Denmark, Norway, and England 1029-1035. Denmark mistress of the Baltic 1157-1227; one kingdom with Norway and Sweden 1397-1412. Lost Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg 1864. **Government, etc.**—Constitutional Monarchy. Executive vested in King and Council. Legislative in King and Riksdag or Diet conjointly. **Education, etc.**—Education widely diffused. Elementary instruction free and compulsory. Established church Lutheran.	**DENMARK.**— **Agriculture.**—Produces: Potatoes, oats, barley, rye. Raises more live stock in proportion to its size than any other European country. Dairy interests enormous and constantly increasing. Leading export, butter. **Manufactures** include spirits, beet sugar, bricks, pottery, machinery, tobacco, and gloves. **Commerce.**—Imports, textiles, metals and hardware, cereals. Exports, provisions, animals.
FRANCE **Physical Features.**—Surface of northwestern portion consists of plains and lowlands; southeastern of elevated plateaus and mountains. Principal mountain ranges, Alps—Mont Blanc, 15,780 feet—Jura, Vosges, Cevennes, Auvergne, and Pyrenees; rivers, Seine, Loire, Garonne, and Rhone. Length of coast line, 1,500 m. **Area.**—207,054 sq. m.; divided into 87 departments. Extreme length, 660 m.; breadth, 540. **Population.**—39,601,509; per sq. m., 190. **Climate.** — Temperate and healthful. Rainfall heaviest along Atlantic and in mountains. **Cities.**—Paris, capital; population 1911, 2,888,110; largest city in France, third in Europe. Lyons, 1906, 523,796; seat of manufactures, notably silk. Marseilles, 550,619; principal port of France and the Mediterranean. Bordeaux, 251,678; center of wine export trade. **ANDORRA.**—A republic in the Pyrenees, under suzerainty of France and the Spanish Bishop of Urgel. **Area,** 175 sq. m. **Population,** 5,231. Inhabitants, principally shepherds, speak the Catalan language. **Religion,** Roman Catholic. **Governed** by a council of 24 members, and a syndic. **MONACO.**—Independent principality inclosed by Department of Alpes-Maritimes, Southern France. **Area,** 8 sq. m.; smallest sovereign State of Europe. **Population,**	**FRANCE** **History.** — Early inhabitants Iberians and Celts. Territory included in ancient Gallia or Gaul; in part made province of Roman Empire 118 B. C.; conquest completed by Julius Cæsar 58-50. Franks—allied German tribes—established monarchy under Clovis 5th century A. D.; became dominant people, giving name to country. Formed part of Charlemagne's Empire 768-814. Separate monarchy established, nucleus of modern France 9th century. Settlement of Normans (Northmen) 10th century. Crusades 12th century. Huguenot wars 1562-98; massacre St. Bartholomew 1572. Power greatly extended 17th century. Seven years' war 1754-63; Canada lost 1759. Revolution began 1789. Republic established 1792. Napoleonic wars 1796-1815. Empire proclaimed under Napoleon 1804; overthrown and Bourbons re-established 1815. Second republic 1848; second empire 1852. Engaged in Crimean war 1852. Franco-Prussian war and overthrow of second empire 1870-71. With Russia and England took leading part in the European War, 1914 against Germany and Austria-Hungary. **Government.** — Republican. Executive authority vested in President — term, 7 years — and Ministry. Legislative, in Senate and Chamber of Deputies. **Education, etc.**—Primary in-	**FRANCE.**— **Agriculture,** the leading industry. Chief products: Wheat, oats, rye, barley, potatoes. Value of chestnuts, walnuts, olives, apples, plums, and mulberry leaves, $46,-500,000. Silk culture encouraged by Government. Live stock: Horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. Area under forests, 23,043,107 acres. **Manufactures.**—Leading manufactures: Clothing, silk, wool, and cotton textiles, wine, lace-making, fine instruments. **Minerals.**—Chief products: Coal and lignite, iron ore, zinc, antimony, salt. **Commerce.**—Imports: Raw silks and cotton, wool, cereals, coal and coke. Exports: Textiles, raw silk, wool and yarn, wine,

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
19,121. **Towns:** Monaco 2,410; Monte Carlo, 3,794; Condamine, 6,218. **Religion,** Roman Catholic; other churches excluded. **Government,** constitutional monarchy.	struction free since 1881, obligatory 1882. All forms of religion tolerated. Large majority of inhabitants Roman Catholic. By act of 1905 churches ceased to be recognized by state, and state allowances were discontinued.	
Colonies and Dependencies.—France has the following possessions, for details of which see under the respective continents. **In Asia:** India, Annam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, Tonking, Laos. **In Africa:** Algeria, Sahara, Tunis, Sénégal, Upper Sénégal and Niger, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Mauritania,	Congo, Réunion, Madagascar, Mayotte, Somali Coast. **In America:** St. Pierre and Miquelon, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guiana. **In Oceania,** New Caledonia, Tahiti, etc.	

GERMAN EMPIRE

Area.—208,780 sq. m.

Population.—64,903,423. Density per sq. m., 310.4.

Physical Features.—Surface in north largely a lowland plain; central and southern portions tablelands diversified by hills and mountains. Highest elevation, Zugspitze, in South Bavaria 9,738 feet; Schneekoppe, 5,274 feet, highest point north of the Danube. Principal rivers, Rhine, Elbe, Oder, and Vistula.

Climate.—Generally temperate and healthful; winters of upland districts often severe; lower river valleys delightful throughout the seasons. Mean annual temperature, 48 deg. Rainfall fairly uniform; average for year, 27 inches; heaviest in Harz Mountains.

FEDERAL STATES AND CHIEF TOWNS.—

Prussia,—kingdom: 134,497 sq. m.; population, 37,278,820. **Towns:** Berlin, 2,040,222; Breslau, 470,741; Cologne, 428,503; Magdeburg, 270,-661; Frankfort on Main, 334,971; Hanover, 200,032; Konigsberg, 219,852; Dusseldorf, 253,079; Altona, 168,301; Elberfeld, 162,482; Danzig, 159,685; Stettin, 224,078 Barmen, 156,148; Crefeld, 110,347; Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen), 143,905; Halle, 169,899; and 40 others of over 50,000 inhabitants.

Bavaria, kingdom: 29,292 sq. m., population 6,512,824. Towns: Munich, 538,393; Nürnberg, 297,344; Augsburg, 93,882; Würzburg, 80,-220.

Saxony, kingdom: 5,789 sq. m., **Population,** 4,502,350; **Towns,** Leipzig, 502,570; Dresden, 517,282; Chemnitz, 244, 405.

Wurtemburg,—kingdom: 7,530 sq. m., population 2,300,330. Towns: Stuttgart, 249,442; Ulm, 51,680.

Baden, grand-duchy: 5,823 sq. m., population 2,000,320. Towns: Mannheim, 162,607; Carlsruhe, capital, 111,200; Freiburg, 74,102.

Hesse, grand-duchy: 2,966 sq. m., population 1,210,104. Towns: Mainz (Mayence), 91,124; Darmstadt, capital, 83,305.

Mecklenburg-Schwerin, grand-duchy; 5,083 sq. m., population 624,831. Towns: Rostock, 60,760; Schwerin, capital, 41,638.

Mecklenburg-Strelitz, grand-duchy: 1,208 sq. m., population, 103,251. Capital, New Strelitz, 11,344.

Oldenburg, grand-duchy: 2,480 sq. m., population 438,105. Capital, Oldenburg, 28,548.

GERMAN EMPIRE.—

History.—Germans or Teutons, an Aryan race, first mentioned 4th century B. C. German-Roman empire founded by Charlemagne 800; dynasty extinguished 911; reign of Otto (936-977) most successful of Middle Ages; prosperous succession of Hohenstaufen dynasty 1138-1268. Restriction of imperial power by electors 1273-1806; overthrow of empire, and confederation of Rhine under Napoleon I, 1806; dissolved 1813. Alliance of Austria and German States 1815; North German Confederation 1866; Franco-Prussian War 1870-71—Prussia leading factor, joined by Southern Germany. William I, King of Prussia, elected German Emperor in Reichstag on initiative of all reigning German princes 1871. Took the leading part in the European War, 1914, as an ally of Austria-Hungary against France, England, Russia and Belgium.

Government, etc.—A constitutional monarchy; King of Prussia hereditary German Emperor, with supreme direction of military and political affairs. Legislative power vested in two bodies—the Bundesrath, representing the states in union, and Reichstag elected by the people. For purpose of administration the Empire is divided into 26 States—4 Kingdoms, 6 grand duchies, 5 duchies, 7 principalities 3 free towns—1 imperial territory. The respective heads of these States are known as kings, grand dukes, dukes, princes, burgomasters and governor.

Education, etc.—Education highly advanced throughout the Empire. Primary education free and compulsory; school age, 6-14. Secondary schools, 1,529, besides 181 normal, 11 polytechnic institutes, and many splendid secondary schools for vocational training. For higher education, 21 universities. Only 0.04 per cent of the recruits are unable to read (most illiterates in the Polish provinces).

Languages.—German, 92 per cent; Poles, 6 per cent; other, Slavs, 0.5 per cent; French 0.4 per cent (220,000); Danes (143,000); Lithuanians (111,000), etc.

Religion.—All religions accorded complete equality. Relation between Church and State varies in different parts of Empire. In 1905 Protestants numbered 37,646,-852; Roman Catholics, 22,109,644; other Christians, 259,717; Jews, 607,862.

GERMAN EMPIRE.—

Agriculture, etc.—Cereals largely raised; rye, leading crop; vine, flax, and beet-root extensively cultivated. Principal crops rye, hay, oats, wheat, barley, potatoes, beet-root grown for manufacture of sugar and also as food for cattle. Fruits and vegetables grown extensively. Area under vineyards, 275,077 acres. Valleys of Rhine, Moselle, Neckar, and Main long celebrated for their wines.

Live Stock.—Stock raising a prominent industry in many districts. Cattle, horses, and sheep reared in large numbers. Saxony and Silesia long renowned for excellence of their wools.

Fisheries.—Sea fisheries comparatively unimportant; fisheries in inland waters an important source of revenue in many districts—salmon, trout, carp, and pike principal fish taken.

Manufactures varied and of vast proportions. Has exceeded all European nations in rapidity of recent industrial development. Over one-third of productive population engaged in industrial pursuits. Two greatest industrial districts: Region of lower Rhine valley, and Saxony. In iron and steel industry Germany surpassed only by United States; centralized in Rhine Province and Alsace-Lorraine. In textiles Saxony and Silesia lead. Large paper mills operate in the Rhine Province. Glass and porcelain centralized in Bavaria, lace in Saxony, beer largely brewed in Bavaria. Production of beet-root sugar important.

Forests occupy 34,569,800 acres, or about 25 per cent of total area of Empire. Forestry an important industry; scientifically conducted under State supervision; furnishes an important revenue in many districts.

Minerals.—Among European countries Germany one of the richest in mineral wealth. Westphalia, Rhenish Prussia, and Silesia leading producers; coal and iron principal minerals worked; country ranks second in output of zinc; yields about one-fourth the world's annual production. Extensive deposits of excellent rock salt in Prussia and several other states. Germany controls world output of potash salts.

Commerce.—One of the foremost commercial countries. Chief imports: Raw textiles, yarn, cereals, live stock, hides, coffee, petroleum. Exports: Metals, metal wares, machinery, textiles, coal, sugar, leather, dyes, clothing.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts

Brunswick, duchy: 1,418 sq. m., population 485,651. Capital, Brunswick, 136,162.

Anhalt, duchy: 886 sq. m. population 328,007. Capital, Dessau, 55,134.

Waldeck, principality: 433 sq. m., population 59,135. Capital, Arolsen, 2,734.

Schaumburg-Lippe, principality: 131 sq. m., population 44,992. Capital, Bückeburg, 5,625.

Lippe, principality: 470 sq. m., population 145,510. Capital, Detmold, 11,971.

Thuringian States.—Saxe Weimar, grand-duchy: 1,388 sq. m., population, 387,892. Capital, Weimar, 31,120. **Saxe-Meiningen,** duchy: 953 sq. m., population 68,859. Capital, Meiningen, 14,518. **Saxe-Altenburg,** duchy: 511 sq. m., population 206,500. Capital, Altenburg, 8,811. **Saxe-Coburg-Gotha,** duchy: 756 sq. m., population, 242,892. Capitals, Coburg, 22,489; Gotha, 34,693. **Schwarzburg-Sondershausen,** principality: 233 sq. m., population 85,177. Capital, Sondershausen, 7,054. **Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt,** principality: 363 sq. m., population 96,830. Capital, Rudolstadt, 11,907. **Reuss, Elder line,** principality: 122 sq. m., population 70,590. Capital, Greiz, 23,111. **Reuss, Junior line,** principality: 319 sq. m., population 141,570. Capital, Gera, 46,910.

Old Hanse Towns.—Hamburg: 160 sq. m., population 875,090, of whom 803,090 in the city. **Bremen:** 99 sq. m.; population, 263,426, of whom 214,879 in the city of Bremen. **Lubeck:** 115 sq. m., population, 105,857, of whom 91,542 in the city.

Elsass (Alsace) and Lorraine, "Reichsland," under a governor appointed by the Emperor; 5,601 sq. m., population, 1,814,626. Towns: Strassburg, 167,342; Mülhausen, 94,514; Metz, 60,396.

GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG.—Grand duchy under King of Netherlands 1815. Included from 1815 to 1866 in German Confederation. Declared neutral territory 1867. **Area,** 998 sq. m.; **population,** 259,891, Catholics predominant. Chief resources, agricultural and iron ore. **Manufactures** of leather and gloves, also textiles. **Government** in hands of Grand Duke. Belongs to the German Customs Union.

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.—For details concerning the following German possessions, see under the respective continents: **In Africa:** Togo, Kamerun, German South-West Africa, German East Africa. **In Asia:** Kiauchau. **In the Pacific:** German New Guinea, Samoan Islands.

BRITISH EMPIRE

History.—The United Kingdom comprises England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and adjacent islands and the dependencies of Isle of Man, and Channel Islands. Wales, Scotland and Ireland formerly distinct countries. Conquest of Ireland commenced 1170, ended 1691; Wales conquered 1282, formally annexed 1536; England and Scotland united 1603; Parliaments united 1707; Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland united 1801; Isle of Man, alternately held by Scotland and England, purchased for British Crown 1765, all privileges ceded 1829; Channel Islands, geographically a part of France, dependencies of British Crown since Norman Conquest. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, colonies, and foreign possessions, together form the British Empire. Total area of the Empire, 11,448,000 sq. m., or over one-fifth of all the land on the globe; population, about 420,000,000, or one-fourth the total inhabitants of the world. Extension and consolidation of British Empire without a parallel in history.

Government, etc.—A constitutional monarchy. Executive power vested nominally in the Crown, practically in a committee of ministers, called the Cabinet—Premier usually the first Lord of the Treasury—dependent on the support of a majority in the House of Commons. Supreme legislative power vested in Parliament, which consists of two houses, Lords and Commons; the former, numbering 632, comprises Peers sitting by hereditary right, other Peers created by the Sovereign, 16 representative Peers for Scotland, 28 elective Peers for Ireland, 2 archbishops, and certain bishops. House of Commons comprises representatives from the counties, cities, and burghs, chosen by registered electors; number of members 670, of whom 495 represent English, 72 Scotch, and 103 Irish constituencies. Duration of Parliament, unless previously dissolved, 7 years; limit of session, 6 months.

Education—Religion.—Elementary education compulsory in Great Britain and Ireland; was made free in Scotland, 1889; in England and Wales, 1891. Higher education provided for by public and private schools, colleges, and universities. Entire freedom exists for all forms of worship. Established religion of England, Protestant Episcopal; of Scotland, Presbyterian. Ireland has no established church.

Geographical Facts

GREAT BRITAIN

ENGLAND AND WALES.—Area of England, 50,890 sq. m., greatest length, 363 m.; greatest breadth, 320 m.; Wales, 7,434 sq. m.

Population.—Total population, 36,075,269; average per square mile, 619.

Physical Features.—Surface of England diversified by mountains, hills, and valleys; watered by numerous rivers and streams; generally level or undulating in east, south, and center; hilly in west. Pennine chain greatest relief feature; Cumbrian Mountains, Sca Fell Pike, 3,210 feet. Principal rivers, Thames, Humber, and Severn. Surface of Wales generally mountainous; Vale of Glamorgan only considerable level district; Snowdon, 3,590 feet, highest point. Dee, Severn, and Wye rise in Wales.

Climate. — Temperate and healthful; general moisture and frequent rain due to insular position.

Political and Social Facts

ENGLAND AND WALES—History.—Earliest historic race, Celts; monuments of primeval inhabitants are found, notably at Stonehenge and Avebury. Leading events in history include: Invasions of Julius Cæsar 54 and 55 B. C.; subjugation of the Celtic Britons by the Romans 43 A. D. and succeeding years; abandonment by Romans 410; invasions by the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons, beginning 449 (?); Christianity introduced 597; rule of Canute the Dane 1016-42; Norman conquest under William I, 1066; commencement of Plantagenet line under Henry II, 1154; Wales subdued by Edward I, 1276-84, united to England 1536; granting of Magna Charta 1215; first Parliament assembled 1265. Reformation under Henry VIII, 1534; succession of Stuart line, and union of the two crowns under James I of Scotland 1603; accession of William and Mary 1689; union

Industry and Commerce

ENGLAND AND WALES.—Agriculture.—Principal grains cultivated, wheat, oats, barley, and rye. Wheat grown chiefly in eastern counties; product less than one-fourth the quantity required for home consumption. Hemp and flax important products. Hops grown extensively, especially in Surrey and Kent. Fruit cultivated.

Live Stock.—Domestic animals among the finest in the world. Great attention given to breeding fine horses, cattle, and sheep.

Fisheries employ over 39,051 men. Catch, exclusive of salmon, largely taken on east coast of England.

Manufactures of textiles, iron and steel, and machinery, rank first among important industries. Ship-building, manufactures of chemicals and leather next in importance; manufacture of earthenware, glass, paper, watches and clocks, etc.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Mean average temperature London, 50.55 deg.; summer, 63.8 deg.; winter, 37.3 deg. **Cities.**—London, capital of England and seat of government of British Empire; largest and most important city of the world, and leading business and financial center. Population, 4,522,961; Greater London, 7,252,963; total area, 690 sq. m.; London proper, "The City," area about one square mile. Liverpool, second commercial port of England; terminus of numerous steamship lines; leading industries, shipbuilding and manufactures of rope, sugar, iron, etc. Population, 746,566. Manchester, chief manufacturing center of England; one of principal centers of cotton manufacture in the world. Population, 714,427. Birmingham, one of chief centers in world for hardware manufactures; population 525,960. Leeds, seat of woolen and cloth manufactures; population, 445,568. Sheffield, seat of cutlery trade, population, 454,653. **SCOTLAND. — Area.** — Area, 30,405 sq. m., including 186 islands —area, 3,700 sq. m. Extreme length, 288 m.; extreme breadth, 175 m.; least breadth, 32 m. Country divided into 33 civil counties. **Physical Features.**—Surface extremely mountainous. Country naturally divided into Highlands, embracing northern and western sections, and Lowlands, comprising southern and eastern districts. Mountains divided into three groups; Grampians, or Central Highlands, Northern Highlands, Southern Highlands. Chief rivers are Tweed, Forth, Tay, Dee, and Spey, flowing into North Sea, and Clyde, entering Atlantic Ocean. The Highlands abound in lakes celebrated for their beauty; Loch Lomond, the most famous, is the largest and finest in Great Britain; others noteworthy are Lochs Katrine, Awe, Leven, Ness, Shin, and Maree. Coast line remarkably broken by far-reaching estuaries and lochs; total length, 2,500 miles. Coasts fringed with numerous islands; principal groups, Orkneys, Shetlands, Hebrides—including Staffa, with its famous cavern. **Population.** — Scotland much less populous than England. Population, 4,759,445; males, 2,307,603; females, 2,451,842. Inhabitants, per square mile, 160. People of Highlands and Lowlands two distinct races. Language of Lowlands is prevalently English; that of Highlands is still largely Gaelic, gradually becoming less prevalent. **Climate.**—Slightly colder than that of England, especially in Highlands, where winter is more severe and rain most abundant. **Cities.**—Edinburgh capital, on the Firth of Forth. Population, 320,315. Glasgow largest city and seaport, and first in wealth and commercial importance. Population, 784,455. Dundee, important seaport, with extensive coasting and foreign trade; principal center of jute manufactures in Great Britain.	of England and Scotland 1707; accession of Hanoverian dynasty, George I, 1714; loss of United States 1783; union with Ireland 1801; accession of Victoria and separation of Hanover 1837; war with Russia 1853-56; assumed control of Indian possessions 1858. **Government, etc.**—Geographically divided into 52 counties or shires; government represented in each by Lord Lieutenant and High Sheriff, appointed by the Crown; for purposes of a local government, 62 administrative counties, each governed by a County Council. **Education.**—Of common schools, over half are voluntary schools under religious control. Elementary education compulsory; school age 5-14. For higher education England has ten universities. **Religion.**—Established Church of England, Protestant Episcopal; all other forms tolerated. Other prominent religious bodies; Roman Catholic, Methodists, Baptists, Congregationalists, Presbyterians and Salvation Army. **SCOTLAND.**— **History.**—The name Scotland, "Land of the Scots" became general about 950; Albyn, the name given by native Picts and Scots; Roman name, Caledonia. At the time of the Roman invasion the country was divided among Celtic tribes. Invasions of Roman Britain by Picts and Scots, fourth and fifth centuries. Kingdom founded by Dalriad Scots and a settlement of Angles in the southeast in sixth century. Conversion of Picts begun by Columba, who founded monastery of Iona about 565. Kingdom of Albania, or Scotia, founded in ninth century by union of Picts and Scots. Raids and settlements in Orkneys and Shetlands by Norsemen, eighth to eleventh centuries. Country invaded by Edward I of England, 1296. Independence of Scotland secured under Robert Bruce by victory of Bannockburn, 1314; reign of Mary, Queen of Scots, 1542-67; reformation, 1560. Accession of James VI of Scotland to throne of England as James I, 1603. Legislative union of two kingdoms of England and Scotland, 1707; Jacobite insurrections, 1715 and 1745-46. **Government, etc.**—Scotland forms one kingdom with England, but has a distinct code of law, and a Presbyterian Established Church. Largest administrative division civil county or shire; chief officials of each county, the Lord-Lieutenant—who is also High Sheriff—and the Sheriff-Principal, both appointed by the Crown. The Lord-Lieutenant represents the Crown for military purposes; important judicial and administrative authority rests with the Sheriff-Principal. **Education.**—Elementary education made free for compulsory standard, 1889; compulsory age, 5-14. Higher education provided for by 4 universities, comprising 5 colleges, and 2 detached colleges. **Religion.**—Established Church	**Minerals.**—Country contains vast stores of mineral wealth. Mining one of chief industries. Coal and iron lead; tin, copper, lead, and zinc also worked. Slate quarried extensively in Wales. Valuable clays, building stones, granites, and marbles produced in various localities. **Commerce.**—Foreign commerce extends to all parts of the globe; distinguishing features, imports of raw materials and exports of manufactured goods. Trade of England and Wales 91.5 per cent of entire trade of United Kingdom. **SCOTLAND.**— **Agriculture.**—Productive area limited; agricultural districts in flourishing condition. Principal grain crops, oats, barley, and wheat; staple crop, oats; excellent wheat grown in southern district. Potatoes and turnips cultivated largely. **Live Stock, etc.**—Chief industry of Highlands rearing of cattle; Clydesdale famous for its cart horses; Shetland Islands for ponies; Ayrshire for fine cattle. Sheep industry extensive; Scotland famous for two breeds: Cheviot, grown for wool; black-faced, for mutton. Deer more abundant than in England; deer forests cover 4,020 sq. m. **Fisheries** form one of the chief industries. Surrounding seas swarm with fish; herring, cod, and haddock taken in enormous quantities, chiefly on east coast. Rivers and lakes supply large numbers of salmon and trout. **Minerals.**—Mineral resources extensive; coal and iron lead in importance; extensive deposits exist in Lowlands. Lead and copper also mined; good building stone and granite quarried. **Manufactures.**—Scotland chiefly a manufacturing and commercial country. Manufacture of cotton, woolen, and linen textiles important and long established industries. Shipbuilding and manufacture of heavy iron goods, machinery, and locomotives, leading industries; more iron and steel ships built at Glasgow, on the Clyde, than at any other port in the Kingdom. Other manufactures are paper, glass, pottery, and chemicals. **Commerce** similar to that of England. Imports, chiefly raw materials and colonial produce. Exports: manufactured goods, agriculture products, coal, iron, and fish.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Population, 165,006. Aberdeen, a leading commercial center. Population, 163,084. **IRELAND.—Area.**—32,605 sq. m.; mainland, 32,365 sq. m. Greatest length, 290 m.; greatest breadth, 175 m.; least, 90 m. Country divided into 4 provinces, subdivided into 32 counties. **Population.**—4,381,951; per sq. m., 136. **Physical Features.** — Surface generally level in the interior, rising toward the coast in isolated groups of hills or mountains; highest summit, Carrantuohill, in Magillicuddy Reeks, 3,414 feet. Central portion of Ireland crossed by a great limestone plain; large areas of plain are marsh and bogs, furnishing abundance of peat. Country well watered. Principal rivers: Shannon —length 224 miles—Blackwater, Bann, and Barrow. Lakes abound: Lough Neagh, 150 square miles in extent, largest in British Isles; Lakes of Killarney, celebrated for picturesque beauty. Coats on north and west bold and rocky, broken by deep inlets; on east flat and regular; south coast affords excellent harbors. **Climate.**—Milder than that of England, characterized by excessive moisture. Rainfall most abundant on western and southern coasts. Mean temperature of Dublin, January, 40.4 deg.; July, 59.9 deg.; year, 49.2 deg. **Cities.**—Dublin, the capital, population, 309,272. Belfast, leading commercial and manufacturing city in Ireland. Population, 385,492. Cork, third city, population, 76,632. Other important seaports and commercial centers are: Limerick, rich in historical associations. Population 38,403. Londonderry, an important port and manufacturing town. Population, 40,799.	of Scotland, Presbyterian. United Free Church, formed from disruption 1843, joined 1900 with United Presbyterian Church. **IRELAND.—** **History.**—Introduction of Christianity by St. Patrick 432; Danish invasion 1014, ended by victory, at Clontarf, of the Irish chieftain Brian Bore; conquests of country by Henry II, 1174; by Henry VII 1494; Poyning's Act, 1494, repealed 1782; revolt of Irish under Geraldines suppressed by Henry VIII, who took title of King of Ireland 1542; English and Scottish settlements made in Ulster by James I, 1609-12; adherence of Ireland to James II, 1689; Battle of the Boyne 1690; Irish Parliament declared independent 1782; unsuccessful rebellion, 1798; Act consummating union of Ireland and Great Britain became effective 1801; unsuccessful rebellion under Emmet 1803; Catholic Emancipation Act passed 1829; potato famine 1846-7, followed by great emigration to America; "Young Ireland" rebellion 1848; Fenian outbreaks, 1865-7; disestablishment of Irish Church 1871; Land League suppressed 1881; Home Rule Bill became a law in 1914, but not immediately operative. **Government, etc.**—Executive Government vested in a Lord-Lieutenant, appointed by the Crown, assisted by a Privy Council and a Chief Secretary who is a member of House of Commons. For purposes of local government the county is the most important division. Chief officials of each county, the Lord-Lieutenant, commanding the militia, and the High Sheriff, both appointed by the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. Principal governing body, the Grand Jury; control of fiscal affairs now its most important function. **Education.**—Elementary education controlled by Commissioners, of National Education; compulsory, subject to exceptions, since 1892. For higher education, three universities. **Religion.**—Three-fourths of inhabitants Roman Catholics. Protestant Episcopal Church disestablished by law 1869, is still an influential body. Other denominations; Presbyterians, Methodists, Independents, Baptists, Jews.	**IRELAND.—** **Agriculture,** the leading industry, engages 44 per cent of working population. Of total area, 72 per cent cultivable and pasture land. Potatoes raised in greater quantities, relatively, than in any other country; prosperity of Ireland depends largely upon this crop. Principal crops: Potatoes, oats, barley, wheat, turnips. **Live Stock.**—Most flourishing department of Irish agriculture, rearing of live stock; large numbers of fatted cattle shipped to English market. Cattle, sheep, and pigs constitute chief industrial wealth. **Fisheries.**—Coasts of Ireland swarm with all kinds of fish; catch, however, equals only about one-seventh of that of Scotland. Large numbers of salmon are taken annually. **Manufactures.**—Leading manufacturing industries, linen textiles, poplins, and lace; woolen and cotton goods are produced; other manufactures are glass and pottery. Linen industry, employing about 60,000 people, practically confined to Ulster. Second in importance to textiles is the production of whisky, beer, and porter. Largest whisky distilleries in the Kingdom at Dublin. **Minerals.**—Country rich in iron ore. Coal fields limited in extent, output small. Small deposits of copper, lead, and silver exist; greatest aggregate value, that of marbles, building stones, clay, and slate; other minerals, salt, alum, and barytes. **Commerce** consists largely of export of agricultural produce and import of coal. Of total trade of United Kingdom, 2.5 per cent falls to Ireland.

EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN

ISLE OF MAN.—Originally peopled by the Manx, a Celtic race; alternately possessed by Scotch and English; purchased for British Crown 1806. **Area,** 227 sq. m. **Climate,** mild. Herring, cod, and mackerel **fisheries** extensive. **Mineral** products, lead, zinc, salt; lead mines richest in Kingdom. **Population,** 52,034. Native Manx and English both taught in schools. Douglas, capital and largest town. **Religion,** Established Church of England. Island governed by Lieut.-Governor appointed by Crown; has its own laws; two supreme judges, deemsters.

CHANNEL ISLANDS, dependencies of British Crown since Norman Conquest. **Area,** 75 sq. m. **Climate,** mild and equable. **Agricultural and Pastoral.**—Potatoes, garden truck flourish; apple orchards extensive; famous for cattle, especially Alderney and Guernsey breeds. **Population,** 96,900. Native language old Norman patois; official language still French; English generally spoken. St. Helier, capital of Jersey—largest island—busy seaport and well-known watering place. Islands governed under ancient charters; Jersey separately under Lieut.-Governor; Guernsey and its dependencies, Alderney, Sark, etc., a Lieut.-Governor in common.

GIBRALTAR.—Town and fortified promontory of great strategic importance at entrance of Mediterranean; taken by English 1704. Area, 1.9 sq. m.; population, 24,460, including garrison of 5,340 men. Civil and military authority rests with Governor, who is also Commander-in-Chief.

EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN—Continued

MALTA.—Island dependency of Great Britain in Mediterranean, south of Sicily; important naval base and port of call. **Area,** 95 sq. m.; **population,** 228,442. Valetta, chief town and seaport.

OTHER POSSESSIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN.—(For details see under respective continents).

Asia (except India): Cyprus, Aden, Perim, Socotra, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, Fed. Malay States, Other Malay States, Borneo and Sarawak, Hong Kong and Ter., Wei-hai-wei. **India:** British, Feudatory States. **Australasia:** Australia, Papua, New Zealand, Fiji, Tonga, Solomon, and Gilbert Is. **Africa:** Ascension, St. Helena, W. Africa, N. Nigeria, S. Nigeria and Prot., Gold Coast and Prot., Sierra Leone and Prot., Gambia and Prot., Mauritius and Dep., Seychelles, Somaliland, East Africa Prot., Uganda Prot., Zanzibar and Pemba, Nyasaland, Union of S. Africa, Rhodesia, Swaziland, Basutoland, Bechuanaland. **N. America:** Canada, Newfoundland and Labrador, British Honduras, British Guiana, Bermuda. **W. Indies:** Bahamas, Turks and Caicos Is., Jamaica, Cayman Is., Windward Islands, Leeward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago. **S. America:** Falkland Islands.

Geographical Facts

GREECE

Area, etc.—Area, 25,014 sq. m., including islands, 3,149 sq. m.

Population.—2,631,952.

Physical Features.—Modern Greece includes a mainland connected by the Isthmus of Corinth with the four-fingered peninsula of Morea (Peloponnesus), and a number of islands (Eubœa, the Sporades, Cyclades, and Ionian Islands). It is essentially a maritime, mountain-land, rising in the Pindos to a height of 8,240 feet. The only extensive plain is that of Thessaly, the only navigable river the Aspropotamos.

The Climate is delightful, and snow, in the plains, rare. Athens, mean temperature, 65 deg., Jan. 47 deg., July 80, rainfall 16 in.

Cities.—Athens, capital, contains ancient acropolis or citadel with ruins of Parthenon and Erechtheum; population, 167,479. Piræus port of Athens, chief seaport, population, 73,597; Patras, 37,968; Trikala, 21,149; Hermupolis (Syra), 17,894; Korfu, 17,918.

ITALY

Area.—110,646 sq. m., including Sicily, 9,936; Sardinia, 9,306. Divided into 69 provinces.

Population.—34,686,683; per sq. m., 314. Italian is the mother tongue of all, with exception of 140,000 French in the Alps of Piedmont; 50,000 Albanians, 20,000 Greeks, and 7,000 Catalonians in the south.

Physical Features.—The Kingdom of Italy includes an extended peninsula in the center of the Mediterranean, encircled in the north by the Alps, and traversed along the whole of its length by the Apennines (Gran Sasso, 9,580 ft.), together with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. The Southern Tyrol, Ticino, Istria, Corsica, and other districts mainly inhabited by Italians, are known to patriots as "Italia Irridenta." The great rivers are the Po (which drains a vast plain and the lakes at the south foot of the Alps), the Arno, and the Tiber. Mt. Vesuvius—only active volcano no mainland of Europe.

Climate.—Genial, being most extreme in the north, most equable along the Riviera and in the South. At Rome the mean temp. is 59 deg., and the rainfall 31 in.

Cities.—Rome, capital and ecclesiastical center; population, 538,-

Political and Social Facts

GREECE.—

History.—Name derived from Graecus, an ancient king. Authentic history begins 776 B. C. Period of greatest power 5th century B. C. Became province of Roman Empire, 46 B. C.; of Byzantine Empire, 395 A. D. Conquered by Turks, 1456; incorporated with Turkish Empire, 16th century. Independence regained, 1821-29 declared a kingdom under protection of Great Britain, France, Russia, 1830. War with Turkey, 1897, resulted in Greece accepting international control in financial affairs and the payment of large indemnity to Turkey.

Government.—Executive power vested in King; legislative in single chamber, called Boulé, composed of 235 representatives.

Education, etc.—Elementary education compulsory; law not strictly enforced. State church Greek Orthodox; Patriarch of Constantinople nominal head; toleration granted all sects.

Greek is spoken by the bulk of the population; but Albanians (90,000) are met with in Attica, Zinzars (Roumanians) in the Pindos, Turks in Thessaly.

ITALY.—

History.—Invading Pelasgians from Greece and aborigines—Umbrians, Oscans, Etruscans—combined, formed Latin race. Rome founded 753 B. C.; peninsula consolidated under Roman rule 3d century B. C. Foundation of States of Church 756. Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome 800. Kingdom of Naples founded 1059. Struggle between popes and German emperors 11th—14th centuries. Period of foreign interference—Spanish-Austrian predominating—1494-1796. Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman republics founded 1797; Napoleon crowned King of Italy 1805, abdicated 1814. Victor Emanuel proclaimed king 1861: temporal power of Papacy ended 1870.

Government, etc.—Limited monarchy. Executive vested in King and Council of Ministers. Legislative in King and parliament.

Education, etc.—Elementary education free; school age, 6-9. Universities, 21. Roman Catholic nominally State religion; freedom of worship granted all faiths. Roman Catholics, 97 per cent 100,000 Protestants, 40,000 Jews.

Industry and Commerce

GREECE.—

Agriculture, etc.—Country mainly agricultural; soil unusually fertile. Industry backward, owing to primitive methods. Cereals grown are wheat, barley, rye, corn; currants the most favored and best cultivated. Of other products, tobacco, wine olive, orange, lemon, and fig-growing important. Silk culture followed in Messenia and Thessaly. Live stock: Sheep, cattle, goats. Forests cover 2,025,400 acres.

Mineral deposits of great variety; about 35 mining concessions, embracing nearly 20,000 acres; minerals worked include iron, copper, zinc, lead, silver, manganese, and various other earths.

Commerce.—Leading imports: Cereals, textiles, coal; exports; agricultural products, raw minerals, wines.

ITALY.—

Agriculture.—Wheat, maize, oats, rice, hemp, flax, and potatoes are produced. Area under vineyards, 11,000,000 acres; olives, 5,760,000. Silk culture is carried on all over Italy. Live stock embraces cattle, sheep, goats, swine. Forest area 15,700 sq. m.

Manufactures.—Silk most important textile. Other industries: Cotton and woolen textiles, lace, leather, furniture, art goods, etc. Textile industries employ more than 400,000 wage earners.

Minerals.—Principal minerals: Sulphur, zinc, iron, lead; besides copper and manganese. Value of marble quarried, $3,700,000 annually.

Commerce.—Leading imports: Wheat, coal, raw cotton, machinery. Exports: Raw silk, cocoons, cotton goods, silk goods, fruits and vegetables, fresh and prepared; olive oil, wines.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
634. **Naples, largest city;** 723,208. **Milan,** center of silk industry and trade, 599,200. **Turin,** textile industries, 427,733. **Palermo,** 309,-69?; **Genoa,** 234,800; **Florence,** 205,589; **Venice,** 151,841; **Messina,** 149,778; **Bologne,** 152,009; **Catania,** 149,295; and **Leghorn,** 98,321. **SAN MARINO.**—Independence of Republic recognized by Church, 1231. **Area,** 38 sq. m. Consists of a craggy mountain—Titano, 2,420 feet—within Italian territory. **Climate** in winter severe but healthful. **Population,** 10,489, generally engaged in **agriculture** and **cattle** trading. San Marino, capital; population 2,000. **Foreign Dependencies:** Eritrea, Italian, Somaliland, Tripoli and Cyrenaica (all in Africa).		
MONTENEGRO—Area, 3,630 sq. m. Country consists of a series of elevated ridges with lofty mountain peaks; originally covered with d nse pine forests, hence Montenegro, "Black Mountain." **Population,** 250 000, almost entirely of Servian d scent. Capital, Cetigne; population, 4,500; Podgoritza, foetified town; population, 10,000. Dulcigno, fortified coast town; seat of Roman Catholic bishop; population, 5,000.	**MONTENEGRO.—** **History.**—Country was originally peopled by Servians who refused to acknowledge supremacy of Turkey, 1389; claimed independence and waged war against the Turks over 400 years; absolute independence of principality acknowledged and territory doubled by Treaty of Berlin, 1878. **Government.** — Constitutional monarchy with popular representation. **Education.**—Free and compulsory. Church nominally independent of State. Orthodox Greek churches, Mohammedans and Roman Catholics in the order named.	**MONTENEGRO.—** **Forests** of beech, oak, and conifers occupy large part of uncultivated area. **Agricultural** methods primitive; principal crops, corn, tobacco, oats, and barley; on the coast belt and in the low, warm valleys vine and olive cultivated; also fig, pomegranate, almonds; in more elevated districts the temperate fruits. **Live Stock** raised extensively; sheep and goats number 500,000; cattle, 60,000; sheep, 400,000; horses, 3,000. **Manufactures** include only coarse woolens and other articles for home consumption.
NETHERLANDS **Area.**—12,648 sq. m., divided among 11 provinces and 1,123 communes. Length, 196 m.; breadth, 109. **Population.**—5,945,155; per sq. m., 470. Foreigners, 69,975, of whom 37,532 were German. Inhabitants belong to Germanic race; Dutch the common language. **Physical Features.**—The kingdom of the Netherlands (also known as Holland, from its leading Province) occupies a portion of the Great Germanic Plain, and is protected against the sea by dunes and dikes. Mean elevation only 37 ft.; culminating point 787 ft.; 25 per cent of the total area below mean sea-level. One-fourth of area below sea level. Abounds in inland waters. Length of navigable waters — excluding canals — about 3,000 m. Chief river—Rhine. **Climate.**—Humid and variable; winters severe. **Cities.**—The Hague, official population, 280,515. Amsterdam, commercial capital, seaport; 573,983. Rotterdam, seaport, 426,888. Utrecht, 112,796; Gröningen, 71,490; Haarlem, 68,255; Arnhem, 60,528; Leiden, 56,044. **Colonies.**—East Indies (incl. New Guinea), 759,280 sq. m., population 36,040,000; West Indies, 50,253 sq. m., population 113,000.	**NETHERLANDS.—** **History.**—In Middle Ages, Netherlands and Belgium divided among Brabant, Flanders, Holland, and other duchies; united with Burgundy 15th century; passed to Hapsburg family, 1477; later to Spain. Revolution under William of Orange, and Pacification of Ghent, 1567; Union of Utrecht, 1579; Dutch Republic acknowledged, 1648; united with England, 1689; conquered by France, 1794; kingdom under Louis Bonaparte, 1806; union with Belgium in Kingdom of Netherlands, 1815; revolution, 1830, ended, 1833; settlement with Belgium, 1839. **Government, etc.**—Hereditary constitutional monarchy. Executive vested in Sovereign; legislative in Sovereign and States General—composed of an upper and lower chamber. **Education, etc.**—Public schools free and compulsory. Higher education includes four universities and one technical college. Dutch Reformed (Presbyterian), to which Court belongs, numbers most adherents; Roman Catholics next; Jews, 110,000.	**NETHERLANDS.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Principal crops: Rye, potatoes, oats, wheat. Area of orchards and gardens 151,670 acres; cherries, apples, pears, and strawberries largely grown. Bulbs grown extensively. Area under forests, 613,505 acres. **Live Stock.**—Rearing of live stock a prominent pursuit. Area under pasture, 2,921,711 acres—supporting many cattle, horses, sheep, and swine. Dairy products excellent. **Fisheries,** especially herring, valuable. **Manufactures.** — Shipbuilding and sugar refining among the foremost industries; also distilling and brewing. Other important industries include the manufacture of textiles, carpets, leather, and paper, chocolate and cacao, pottery, production of gold and silver articles, diamond cutting. **Commerce.**—Chief imports: Cereals, iron, steel, coal, textiles, coffee: Exports; cereals, butter, cheese, cattle.
NORWAY **Area, etc.**—Area, 124,199 sq. m. Surface a series of elevated plateaus; elevation of 57 per cent of area 1,000 feet or more (Goldhoppinger, 8,540 feet). Coast indented by fjords and fringed with islands; famous whirlpool, the Maelstrom, between two Lofoden islands. **Population.**—2,391,782; per sq. m. 11; including 20,000 Lapps and 9,000 Finns. **Climate.**—Mild and healthful; temperature modified by maritime	**NORWAY.—** **History.**—Native kings ruled, 824-1028; Christianity introduced 998. Reign of Canute, 1028-1035. Subject to Sweden 1319; to Denmark, 1380; united with both, 1397. Union with Sweden, 1814; dissolved, 1905. **Government, etc.**—Nominally a Constitutional Monarchy, virtually a Republic. Executive represented by King and Council of State; Legislative vested in Storthing—elected by the people. **Education, etc.**—Primary edu-	**NORWAY.—** **Agriculture, etc.** — Unproductive area, 75 per cent of whole; forests, 22 per cent; cultivated, 3 per cent. Value of cereals about $11,000,000 annually. Live stock includes cattle, sheep, reindeer. Estimated forest area, 26,685 sq. m.—chiefly pine. Value timber exports, $21,300,000. **Fisheries** constitute a leading industry. **Commerce.**—Imports: Breadstuffs, textiles. Exports: Timber and woodenware, animal products.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
situation. Rainfall abundant on coast, scanty in interior. **Cities.**—Christiania, capital, chief city and seaport; population, 241,834. Bergen, port, 76,867. Trondhjem, 38,180. Hammerfest, northernmost town of Europe; 2,709.	cation free and obligatory. National church Evangelical Lutheran.	
PORTUGAL **Area, etc.**—Area, 35,490 sq. m., including Azores — 922 — and Madeira—314. Mountainous in north, northeast, and extreme south. Lowlands on west coast. Principal rivers, Douro, Tagus, Guadiana. **Climate.**—Warm and equable. Rainfall excessive on northern coast, scanty south of Tagus. Mean temperature Lisbon: January, 50 deg.; August, 71 deg.; year, 60 deg. **Population.**—5,423,132, including: Azores, 256,291; Madeira, 150,574. Per sq. m., 152.8. Inhabitants of same origin as Spaniards; language a dialect of Spanish. **Cities.**—Lisbon, capital and chief seaport; population 356,009. Oporto, population, 167,955. **Colonies.**—754,090 sq. m., population 6,959,000, in Africa; 7,715 sq. m., population 795,000 in Asia.	**PORTUGAL.—** **History.**—Ancient inhabitants Celts. Country made a Roman province about 137 B. C. Conquered by Visigoths 5th century; by Moors, 713. Kingdom established 1143. Became great maritime power during 15th and 16th centuries. Conquered by Spain 1580; independence recovered 1640. French invasion, Court escaped to Brazil, 1807; Court returned 1821. Constitutional charter granted 1826. Republic established 1910. **Government, etc.**—Republic. **Education, etc.**—75 per cent of people illiterate. Primary schools, 23 normal schools, and one university. State religion, Roman Catholic; all others tolerated. Protestants about 5,000; chapels at Lisbon and Oporto.	**PORTUGAL.—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Over 54 per cent of total area productive, but largely uncultivated. Rye and barley grown chiefly in north; wheat in south; rice in marshy districts; corn everywhere. Olives, figs, grapes, oranges, etc., produced. Cattle reared throughout the country, sheep and goats largely in central districts, swine in south. Fisheries: Catch chiefly sardines, tunny and cod. **Manufactures.**—Wine - making chief industry. Exports: Common wine, port, Madeira, liqueur. Cork industry second in importance. Other industries, textiles, olive oil, earthenware, leather, machinery. **Minerals** abundant but undeveloped, include copper, sulphur, coal, tungsten, lead, and antimony worked; salt, gypsum, and marble exported. **Commerce.**—Leading imports: Textiles, wheat, coal, codfish. Exports: Wine, cork, grain, fish, chiefly to Great Britain and France.
ROUMANIA **Area and Population:** 48,000 sq. mi., pop. 6,392,000. It extends from the Transylvania Alps to the Danube and Prut, and includes also the Dobruja, with the Delta of the Danube. Greater part of country level; western district hilly or mountainous with extensive **forests.** Area of crown forests, 2,759,930 acres. Danube Delta within Roumania; country well watered by its tributaries. **Climate** one of extremes and wide range. **Chief Towns.**—Bucharest, 284,700; Jassy, 78,937; Galatz, 64,436; Braila, 58,585.	**ROUMANIA.—** **Country.**—Consists of the Danubian principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia, united, 1861; independence from Turkey confirmed 1878; raised to a kingdom, 1881. **Government.**—A constitutional monarchy. **Nationality.**—Roumanians (speaking a Latin tongue) 88 per cent; 304,000 Jews, 292,000 Gypsies, etc. **Religion.**—Greek Orthodox, 93 per cent.	**ROUMANIA.—** **Industries.**—70 per cent of the total population supported by agriculture; 29 per cent of area cultivated, 21 per cent under grass, 17 per cent wooded. **Commerce.**—Chief trade with Germany, United Kingdom and Austria. Staple export, corn.
RUSSIAN EMPIRE **Area** of Russian Empire, 8,647,657 sq. m., comprising more than one-seventh of total land surface of globe. Russia largest country in Europe, area 1,996,743 sq. m., or over half of that of entire Continent. Asiatic Russia—6,207,662 sq. m. **Population.**—Of Russian Empire, 163,778,800; European Russia, including Poland and Finland, 135,859,400. About forty languages and dialects spoken. **Physical Features.**—Surface of European Russia a succession of lowland plains sloping gradually toward Baltic, Black, Caspian, and White seas. Tundras—frozen marshy plains—occupy the north, immense forests the center, and steppes—open treeless plains—the south. Central plateau culminates in Valdai Hills (1,100 feet); Ural Mountains geographical boundary between Europe and Asia (Tol-Pas 5,540 feet, highest point); Caucasus on southern border line (Mt. Elbruz 18,463 feet, highest elevation	**RUSSIAN EMPIRE.—** **History.**—Territory ancient Sarmatia; early overrun by Goths, Huns, Avars, Magyars, etc. Varangians, under Ruric, entered Novgorod about 862. Christianity introduced 10th century. Mongol invasion and conquest, 1240; freedom from Mongol rule, 1480. Phenomenal development under Peter the Great, 1689-1725. Russo-Turkish wars, 1768-74, 1789-92. War with Sweden, 1788-90, with France, 1798-1801. More recent events include invasion of Russia by Napoleon, and burning of Moscow by Russians, 1812. Crimean war, 1853-56. Emancipation of serfs, 1861. Russian America sold to United States, 1867. Russo-Japanese war, 1904-5; check on Russian advance in far east. **Government.**—Since 1905 a constitutional hereditary monarchy, which practically retains, however, the entire legislative, executive, and judicial power vested in Czar. **Races.**—Russians, 75,700,000, or 73 per cent; other Slavs (mostly	**RUSSIAN EMPIRE.—** **Agriculture** chief industry of people. Distribution of land in European Russia and Poland, arable, 419,173 acres; orchards, meadows and grazing, 197,532; forests, 480,700. Products of European and Asiatic Russia: Wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, hay, flax, linseed, hemp, hempseed, and tobacco. Area under vines, 16,000,000 acres; wine product, 4,550,000 gallons. **Live Stock.**—Vast numbers of cattle raised on the steppes. European Russia and Poland raises horses, cattle, sheep, goats, swine. In Finland there are 350,000 reindeer, and in southern Russia 225,000 camels. **Minerals.**—Most valuable deposits found in Ural Mountains. Petroleum, gold, platinum, silver, coal, naphtha, salt, copper and zinc are also mined. **Manufactures** show marked increase since emancipation of serfs, 1861. Manufactories in European Russia, Poland, and four govern-

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
of Europe). Petchora (900 miles) most important river of Arctic basin, Neva of Baltic, Dniester (700 miles) and Dnieper (1,200 miles) of Black Sea, and Volga (2,200 miles) and Ural (1,150 miles) of the Caspian. Principal lakes: Ladoga (7,000 sq. m.), largest in Europe; Onega, 3,763 sq. m. **Climate.**—Varied, owing to wide range of latitude; winters severe everywhere; summers hot. **Cities.**—Petrograd (St. Petersburg), capital and largest city; has extensive manufacturing and commercial interests. Population, 1,907,708 Moscow, second capital and place of coronation; population 1,481,200. Warsaw, 756,426; Odessa, 449,673; Kharkov, 173,989; Kief, 309,000; Riga, 282,230; Lodz, 351,570; Kazan, 143,707; Saratof, 137,147; Kishenef, 125,787; Vilna, 162,633; Samara, 89,999; Berdichef, 53,351; Astrakkan, 121,580.	Poles) 8⅓ million, or 8 per cent, Germans, 1,400,000; Lithuanians, 3,600,000; Roumanians, 950,000; Jews, 4,250,000; Finns and Tartars, 8,800,000; Calmucks, 150,000. **Religion.**—Established religion of Empire Graeco-Russian, officially Orthodox Catholic Faith. Emperor head of church. Restraints are laid on Jews and dissenters; both, often severely persecuted; restricted liberty extended to Protestantism of western Europe. Adherents of the Greek Orthodox and United Church: 87,000,000; Roman Catholics, 11,500,000; Mohammedans, 14,000,000; Jews, 5,200,000; Lutherans, 3,600,000. **Education.**—Most of the schools are under the Ministry of Public Instruction; elementary schools and those under Holy Synod about equal in number.	ments of Caucasus, employed 1,951,955 persons, of whom 521,236 were women. Peasant industries, engaged in during winter months, are still prevalent. Capitalistic enterprises are developing rapidly, however, especially about Lodz, in Poland. Russia ranks fourth among cotton-spinning countries. The manufacture of linen is also important. Output of sugar works and distilleries have notably increased. **Commerce.**—Leading imports: Machinery, raw cotton, leather and hides, textiles. Exports: Cereals and flour, timber, eggs and dairy products, naphtha, naphtha oils, flax, oil cake and linseed, furs and leather, and raw metals, chiefly platinum.

DIVISIONS AND DEPENDENCIES OF RUSSIA

POLAND.—Russian Poland formed kingdom under Russian Empire, 1815; insurrections, 1830-46-63; kingdom ceased to exist 1864; incorporated with Russia, 1868. **Area,** 49,018 sq. m. **Agriculture** and **cattle breeding** chief pursuits; 55 per cent of land arable. Has extensive **forests;** considerable **mineral** wealth. Greatest industrial district of Russia. **Population,** 12,129,200—68 per cent Poles, 14 per cent Jews; prevailing **religion** Roman Catholic. **Government** administered by Governor-General having supreme control in civil and military affairs. Warsaw, capital; population, 781 179; Lodz, industrial city, 393,526.

FINLAND.—Grand-duchy, ceded to Russia by Sweden, 1809. **Area,** 125,784 sq. m. **Agriculture** and **cattle breeding** chief pursuits. **Forests** cover 50,498,000 acres, or 63 per cent of area; exports of lumber large. **Manufactures** are developing rapidly; textiles, lumber, and wood pulp and paper lead. **Population,** 3,030,400—86 per cent Finns, 13 per cent Swedes. **Education**—only .04 per cent children of school age without instruction. Lutheran **religion** predominates. Helsingfors, capital; population, 137,-346.

SIBERIA.—Extensive region—part of Russian Empire. **Area,** 4,786,730 sq. m. Surface presents mountains, plateaus, fertile plains, and treeless tundras; chief rivers, Ob, Yenisei, and Lena, important channels of communication and trade; lakes numerous, Baikal largest. **Climate** severe; winters everywhere cold; summers hot. **Population,** estimated, 8,220,100. Tomsk, commercial and intellectual capital of West Siberia; population, 107,711. Irkutsk, capital of East Siberia, 108,060. **Agriculture** successfully carried on below 62d parallel; prairies of southwest, Altai valleys, and Baraba Steppe granaries of Siberia; cattle breeding widely followed. **Manufactures** and **mining** backward; gold and silver the chief minerals; lead, copper, iron, and coal mined in small quantities; salt abounds; precious stones obtained. Imports chiefly manufactured goods and groceries; exports live stock products and furs.

BOKHARA.—Russian vassal State in Central Asia, ruled by Amir. **Area,** 83,000 sq. m. Western part lowland; middle and eastern parts mountainous. **Climate** varied. Products are corn, fruit, silk, tobacco, and hemp. Sheep, goats, horses, and camels bred. **Minerals** include gold, salt, alum, and sulphur. Chief exports silk, cotton, rugs, furs, etc. **Population,** about 1,250,000. Bokhara, capital, about 75,000 inhabitants. **Religion** Mohammedan.

KHIVA.—Russian vassal State in Central Asia, ruled by Khan. **Area,** 24,000 sq. m.; oasis watered by canals, 5,210 sq. m.; rest steppes. Principal commercial products—cotton and silk. Estimated **population,** 800,000; largely Turkomans. Mohammedanism prevails. Khiva, capital; population, 5,000.

PORT ARTHUR, naval war-port, and **Ta-lien-wan (Dalny),** commercial port, leased from China and one of the termini of the Trans-Siberian Railway. Area, 1,200 sq. m., population, 100,000. Its lease transferred to Japan in 1905.

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
SERVIA **Area.**—18,650 sq. m. **Population.**—2,911,701. **Physical Features.**—Surface largely mountainous; Morava, largest river; Danube forms northern boundary. **Climate.**—Healthful and invigorating but inclined to continental extremes. **Cities.** — Belgrade, capital; population, 90,890. Nish, 24,590.	**SERVIA.**— **History.**—Servia was settled by Serbs, 7th century; conquered by Turks, 1459; ceded to Austria, 1718; regained by Turks, 1739; independence practically established, 1829; recognized, 1878; proclaimed a kingdom, 1882; took part in the Balkan War of 1912-13, and the European War of 1914. **Government.**—Administered by King, council of 8 ministers, and National Assembly of Deputies. **Education.** — Elementary instruction compulsory; all schools under Ministry of Education, including university, free. State **religion,** Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholics, Protestants, Jews and Mohammedans also recognized.	**SERVIA.**— **Agriculture** chief industry. Corn and wheat leading crops. Hemp, plums, and various fruits are grown. **Live Stock.**—Sheep, cattle, horses, swine, goats. **Manufactures** include flour, carpets, beer, tile, and sugar. **Commerce** chiefly with Germany. Imports, principally textiles, hides, and skins. **Mineral** deposits valuable: include coal copper, zinc, lead, gold, silver, iron, and oil shales.

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
SPAIN **Area.**—194,783 sq. m., divided into 49 provinces; Canary Isles—2,807 sq. m.—and Balearic—1,935. **Population.**—19,588,688; per sq. m., 100.5. Basques, in north, differ in race and language from other inhabitants, number 440,000; Moriscoes, in south, 60,000. **Physical Features.**—Country, next to Switzerland, highest in Europe; largely a central plateau—inclosed by Cantabrian and Pyrenees mountains on north and Sierra Morena on south. Plateau traversed east and west by mountain ranges. Sierra Nevada, near Mediterranean coast, contain southernmost glacier of Europe. Principal rivers: Tagus Douro, Ebro, Guadiana, Guadalquivir. **Climate.**—Varied; temperate in north, subject to extremes in interior, hot in south and southeast. Rainfall scanty and irregular on plateau, more abundant in north. **Cities.**—Madrid, capital; population, 571,539. Barcelona, 560,000; chief seaport and commercial city. Valencia, 233,348; manufactures silk, velvet, cigars; exports fruit and wine. Seville, 155,366; manufactures cigars and pottery. Malaga 133,045; second seaport. **Colonies and Dependencies.**—84,422 sq. m., population 690,000 including the "Presidios" (Ceuta, etc.), in Africa, etc.	**SPAIN.**— **History.**—Early inhabitants Celts and Iberians. Conquests by Carthaginians 237-219 B. C.; by Romans 201-25 B. C. Kingdom of Visigoths founded 414 A. D., overthrown 711. Christian kingdoms founded: Asturias, 718; Navarre, 873; Castile, 1033; Aragon, 1035. Inquisition established 1480-84; Union of Castile and Aragon 1479; Granada taken, Moorish power destroyed, 1492; Ferdinand and Isabella rulers of all Spain 1512; zenith of power 16th century; Peninsular War 1808-14; republic formed 1873, overthrown, Bourbons restored 1874. **Government, etc.**—Constitutional monarchy. Executive power vested in King, acting through council of ministers; Legislative in Cortes with King. Cortes composed of a Senate and Congress; Chambers have equal authority. **Education, etc.**—Compulsory. There are ten universities. State Church Roman Catholic; restricted liberty of worship allowed Protestants. **Language.**—Castilian. In the North, still 440,000 Basks; in the Sierra Nevada, 60,000 Moriscoes (descendants of the Moors, and 50,000 Gypsies).	**SPAIN.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Deficient and irregular water supply a handicap to agriculture. Principal crops, rye, barley, wheat, Indian corn, esparto, flax, and hemp; all cereals, including rice. Culture of vine leading industry; nearly 25 per cent of tilled area under vineyards and fruits; wine, raisins, and grapes, with olives and nuts, exported. Live stock, chiefly mules, asses, cattle, sheep, goats. **Fisheries.**—Most important, sardines, tunny, and cod. **Manufactures** with exception of wine, olive oil, and corks chiefly for domestic consumption. Manufacture of textiles, especially cotton, and of leather, paper, glass, and metals, leading industries. **Minerals** varied and abundant; chiefly coal, iron, copper, lead, zinc, manganese, mercury, silver, salt. **Commerce.**—Leading imports: Raw and manufactured textiles, foodstuffs, machinery, vehicles. Exports: Iron, copper, lead, wine, fruits, cork, and olive oil.
SWEDEN **Area, etc.**—Area, 172,876 sq. m. Surface, highlands in west, joined by inclined plain sloping toward Baltic Sea, diversified by narrow valleys and lakes. **Population.**—5,521,943. **Physical Features.**—Sweden occupies the Eastern half of the Peninsula of Scandinavia. It is in the main a level country, rising into mountains only along the Norwegian boundary (Kebnekaisse, 6,890 ft.). Lakes and rivers abound. 44 per cent of the area is still wooded. **Climate.**—Healthful; range of temperature between winter and summer, wide. Rainfall heaviest near coast. **Cities.**—Stockholm, capital; commercial and industrial center; population, 341,986. Gothenburg, principal port; population, 167,813. Malmö, 70,797.	**SWEDEN.**— **History.**—Regular government established, 1279. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway united in one kingdom, 1397; independence recovered, 1521. Reformation, 1527. Gustavus Adolphus head of Protestant cause in Germany, 1628. Conspicuous in European politics throughout 17th century. Norway united to Sweden; union dissolved, 1905. **Government, etc.**—Constitutional Monarchy; Executive vested in King and Council of State. Legislative in Parliament of two Houses. **Education, etc.**—Elementary education free and compulsory. State religion, Lutheran, all others tolerated. Evangelical Lutherans, 5,000,000; other Protestants, 60,000.	**SWEDEN.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—About 8 per cent of land area cultivated; 52 per cent forest. Chief crops: Oats, rye, barley, wheat, potatoes. Live stock: Horses, cattle, sheep, pigs. Forests of pine, fir, larch, etc.; products form staple export. **Manufactures.**—Most flourishing connected with iron, timber, sugar, cotton; 65,000 people employed in wood industries. **Minerals.**—Country rich in minerals. Output includes iron ore, silver and lead, copper, zinc, and coal; gold, silver, lead, manganese, nickel, cobalt, also occur. **Commerce.**—Imports: Coal and coke, textiles, metal goods. Exports: Timber, animals, minerals.
SWITZERLAND **Area.**—15,976 sq. m., divided among 22 cantons. Greatest length east to west, 208 m.; breadth, 156. **Population.**—3,741,971; per sq. m., 234. **Physical Features.**—Switzerland is essentially a country of lakes and mountains, of luxuriant pastures and desolate fields of snow and ice. Its altitudes vary from 663 ft. (Lago Maggiore) to 15,217 ft. (Monte Rosa), while its most populous section, the plateau stretching between Jura and the Alps, from the Lake of Geneva to that of Constance has an average elevation of little more than 1,300 feet. The most frequented passes leading into Italy are the Gt. St. Bernard,	**SWITZERLAND.**— **History.**—Prehistoric inhabitants, lake-dwellers; succeeded by Helvetii. Country conquered by Cæsar and added to Roman Empire 58 B. C. Settlements of Burgundians and Alemanni 5th century. Country largely belonged to German Empire 9th to 14th centuries. Union to resist Hapsburg oppression 1291, defeated Austrians at Sempach 1386. Swiss independence acknowledged by Maximilian I, 1499. Confederation subjugated by French, and Helvetic Republic formed 1798. Independence and neutrality secured 1815. **Government, etc.**—A federal republic. Legislative power vested in Federal Assembly of 2 chambers	**SWITZERLAND.**— **Agriculture, etc.**—Of productive area 36 per cent under grass and meadow. Chief agricultural crops, oats, rye, potatoes. Pastoral interests predominate. Live stock: Horses, cattle, sheep, swine, goats. Principal agricultural industries, manufacture of cheese and condensed milk. Forest area 2,105,214 acres; about 1,119,270 acres under State supervision; reduction of this area unlawful. **Manufactures** second to agriculture in importance. Leading industries: Textiles—especially silk and cotton—clocks, watches, machinery, wine, and spirits. Chocolate manufactures, wood carving, and concentrated food products are

EUROPE—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
8,110 ft.; Simplon, 6,600 ft., St. Gotthard, 6,890 ft.; Splügen, 6,946 ft.; and Maloja, 5,940 ft. **Climate and Vegetation.** — Vary according to elevation; and while olives and evergreens flourish on the Italian slopes, deciduous forest trees, vines, and cornfields scarcely extend above 2,600 ft. **Cities.**—Berne, capital; population, 85,269. Zurich, largest city, seat of textile industries; population, 189,088. Basel, 131,914. Geneva, 125,520, center of watch and clock making; Lausanne, 51,986; St. Gallen, 50,625; La Chaux de Fonds, 39,608; Luzern, 32,801; Biel (Bienne), 25,394; Neuchâtel, 22,350; Wintherthur, 25,066. **LIECHTENSTEIN**— Principality between Tyrol and Switzerland, 61 sq. m., population 9,300.	—State and National Councils. Executive in Federal Council—7 members—chosen by Federal Assembly; President and Vice-President of Council first magistrates of Republic. **Education, etc.**—Primary education free and compulsory; law rigidly enforced except in Roman Catholic cantons. Universities, 7. Freedom guaranteed all religious faiths. German spoken in 15 cantons, French 5, Italian 1, Romansch 1.	also important. **Commerce.**—Exports: Silk, cottons. Imports: Cereals, silk goods, cotton, metals.
TURKISH EMPIRE **EUROPEAN TURKEY.**—The immediate possessions of Turkey in Europe were much curtailed by the treaty of Berlin (1878), and more recently by the Balkan war; and now cover only 10,882 sq. m., with an estimated population of 1,891,000. **Population** of Empire, 21,300,000. **Cities.**—Constantinople, capital, chief port, and commercial center; contains mosque of St. Sophia, built 558 A. D.; royal palace, university, libraries, etc.; population, 1,106,000. Salonica, second in size; population, 144,200. Adrianople, center of large trade and manufactures, 125,000. **CRETE,** ancient Candia, island in Mediterranean, forms autonomous province of Turkey. **Area,** 3,365 sq. m. Surface mountainous (Mt. Ida 8,060 feet). Excessive summer heat tempered by north winds. One-third of area under cultivation. Products, olive oil, soap, wine, fruits, silk, etc.; honey of Mt. Ida celebrated. **Population,** 342,151. Official language Greek. Canea, capital; population, 24,399. Executive power vested in Governor, known as High Commissioner. **DIVISIONS AND DEPENDENCIES.**—See under Asia in which the greater part of the Turkish Empire is situated.	**TURKISH EMPIRE.—** **History.** — Peopled originally by Tartars, founders of Empire in Asia Minor under Othman, 1299; most of Balkan Peninsula conquered 14th century; Constantinople taken, 1453; zenith of power under Solyman, 1520-66. Repulsed before Vienna, 1683. War with Russia, 1876, resulted disastrously to Turkey; by Treaty of Berlin, 1878, possessions of Empire greatly reduced, and by the Balkan War of 1912-13 greatly more so. **Government, etc.**—Fundamental laws based on precepts of Koran. Since 1909, Sultan a constitutional monarch. Legislative authority exercised by parliament; equal political rights established for all citizens; all distinctions of race abolished. Sultan remains spiritual head of Islam. **Education, etc.**—Education encouraged by Koran; public schools established in most towns. Mohammedans constitute one-half population; other officially recognized religions, Roman Catholic, Greek, Armenian, Syrian, Maronite, Protestant, Jewish, Nestorian.	**TURKISH EMPIRE.—** **Agriculture.**—Estimated area under cultivation, Ottoman Empire, 44,000,000 acres; under forests, 21,000,000 acres. Principal products, fruits, nuts, tobacco, cereals, cotton, coffee, madder, opium, gums, wine, and silk cocoons. Production of oil of roses encouraged by the government. Value Bosporus fisheries, $1,500,000; Mediterranean coast produces sponges; Red Sea, mother-of-pearl; Persian Gulf, pearls. **Manufactures.**—Rugs made on hand looms largely exported; brass and copper utensils and paper and glass manufactured to limited extent. **Minerals** include copper, lead, silver, iron, manganese chrome, bitumen, sulphur, salt, alum. Coal abundant. **Commerce.**—Imports: Textiles, sugar, flour, petroleum. Exports. Grapes, fruits, silk, cocoons, olive oil, mohair, opium, tobacco.

ASIA

Geographical Facts

Area.—Total area, 17,074,050 sq. m., or more than four times that of Europe; islands, 1,039,860 sq. m.; peninsulas, 3,300,000. Extreme length east and west, 5,990 miles greatest breadth, 5,360.

Population (estimated), 880,000,000 — irregularly distributed; southeastern portion of continent estimated to contain seven-eighths of entire population; average density of remainder about 8 per sq. m.

Physical Features.—Asia, the "great" continent of the Old World is really one with Europe, which is merely its largest and most important peninsula, and is joined to Africa by a narrow isthmus. Distance from Asia Minor to Bering Strait, 5,990 miles; from C. Chelyuskin to C. Buru, near Singapore, 5,360 miles. The lofty tableland of Tibet rises in the center of Asia like a huge citadel. It is bounded in the south by the Himalaya (Mt. Everest, 29,000 feet) in the North by the Kwen-lun; ramifies in the east and southeast into China and East China, and is continued in the west by the Hindu Kush (Tirach Mir, 25,426) and the plateaus of Iran, Armenia, and Asia Minor. A second plateau, of much inferior height, lies to the north of Tibet, being girt by the Pamir, the Tien-shan (Khan Ten ri, 24,000) and other ranges. It includes the basin of the Tarim (Lob Nor, 2,600 feet); the Turfan basin, believed to be depressed below the sea-level; and the great desert of Gobi. The principal isolated highland regions of Asia are the mountains of Corea, the Deccan, the mountains of Syria and Arabia, the Caucasus (Mt. Elbruz, 18,530 feet), the Caspian through Turkistan and West Siberia to the Arctic Ocean; that of the Euphrates and Tigris, of Hindustan and China.

Hydrography.—A large portion of Inner Asia forms a continental basin, sending no river to the sea, and in many parts riverless. Within it lie the Caspian Sea, 169,380 sq. m. (84 ft. below sea-level); L. Aral (26,170 sq. m.), fed by the Syr and Amu Daria (Oxus); L. Balkash (1,135 sq. m.) with the Ili, Lob Nor, Kuku Nor (10,400 ft.). The great rivers of the continent are: the Ob (drainage area, 1,190,000 sq. m.), the Yenisei (987,000 sq. m.), which flows through L. Baikal (12,441 sq. m.), the Lena (871,000 sq. m.), the Amur (807,000 sq. m.), the Hwang-ho (386,000 sq. m.), the Yang-tse-kiang (723,000 sq. m.), the Ganges 500,000 sq. m., and the Euphrates (255,000 sq. m.).

Climate.—Great contrast between the dry cold of North Siberia and the hot damp of the Malay Arch. Temperature is generally lower than that of Europe under similar latitudes, and the range between summer and winter is greater. In Arabia and parts of Central Asia, little or no rain falls.

Political and Social Facts

History.—Asia regarded as birthplace of mankind; region of Hindu Kush, according to oldest Asiatic legends, first home of man. Great religions of the world had their origin in Asia. Continent seat of many ancient civilizations. Chinese located in present home about 3000 B. C. Assyrian and Babylonian empires constituted earliest civilization in Western Asia, annals dating from 4000 B. C. exist; zenith of power 7th and 8th centuries B. C. Rise of Mohammedan power 6th century A. D.; climax under Harun-al-Rashid, 9th century. Genghis Khan (Mongol) conquered Central Asia, 1218-21; Kublai Khan established Mongol rule from Dnieper to Sea of Japan, Siberia to Malay Peninsula, 13th century. Ottoman Empire founded in Asia Minor, 1288; Mogul Empire in India, 1526. Beginning of British influence in Asia 17th century, greatly extended, 1760-1858. Russian power dates from 16th century. Political influence balanced by British supremacy in south, Russian in north.

Government. — Political divisions comprise the monarchies of Japan, Siam, Afghanistan, Persia, Nepal, Bhutan, and Oman; the Republic of China; independent tribes in Arabia; and Russian, British, Turkish, Dutch, French, American, German, and Portuguese possessions.

Religion.—Dominant religions: Brahmanism or Hinduism—confined to India; Buddhism—prevailing beyond the Ganges and in China, Japan, and Ceylon; Mohammedanism—in Western Asia, partly in India and Eastern Archipelago. Estimated number of Christians, over 20,000,000.

Races. — Mongolian race — peoples of China, Tibet, Indo-China, parts of Siberia, and dominant people of Turkey; Aryan—peoples of Hindustan, Afghanistan, Baluchistan, Persia, Caucasus, besides Russians in Siberia; Greeks, Armenians, etc.; Semitic—Syrians, Arabians, Jews. Malays in Malacca Peninsula and East Indies.

Industry and Commerce

Forests of Northern Asia not widely different from those of Europe and America. Siberian steppes bounded south by forests of pine, birch, willow; poplars, elms, and maples border river courses. Himalayas chief timber district; slopes clothed with forests of pine, oak, walnut, maple; fig trees and banyans characterize lower ridges. Teakwood found throughout India. Other trees of commercial importance, palm, sal, sandalwood, satinwood, etc. Dyewoods and medicinal gums obtained in Southern Asia.

Vegetation, etc.—Vegetation rich and diversified. Herbaceous plants abound in Siberia. Below 62d parallel soil generally adapted to agriculture. Steppes and plateaus of western and central regions abound in rich pastures. Irrigation employed in western Asia and interior. India and China leading agricultural countries. Rice, sugar, cane, indigo, hemp, cotton, tea, various nuts and spices, and most fruits of temperate zone, native to Asia. Other products, cereals, coffee, leguminous plants. Animals native to Asia—elephant, buffalo, camel, yak, reindeer, etc.—largely utilized as beasts of burden.

Minerals.—Vast coal fields in China; Japan, Burma, and Bengal also rich in coal. Excellent iron ores found in China, Japan, India, and Arabia. Malay tin mines unrivaled. Copper produced in China, India, and Japan; lead in China, Burma, Turkey, Arabia, and Persia; gold and silver in Siberia, India, China, Japan, Malay Peninsula, Persia, and Arabia. Precious stones widely distributed. Burma produces finest rubies in the world, besides sapphires, jade, amber, etc.; turquoise mined in Persia and Tibet in Altai and Ural Mountains jasper, malachite, and beryl abound. Petroleum is important product of Burma, and occurs in Siam and Euphrates Valley. Sulphur found in Japan and Arabia. Kaolin deposits in China and Japan furnish material for pottery. Salt abundant.

AFGHANISTAN

Area, 250,000 sq. m.

Population estimated at 5,900,000, divided into tribes. Afghans—Pathans—2,500,000.

Physical Features.—Greater part of surface mountainous; elevation of plains with few exceptions over 4,000 ft., with large areas above 7,000. Principal mountain range Hindu Kush (20,000 ft.). Mountain ranges traversed by numerous passes, often of great military and

AFGHANISTAN—

History.—Belonged successively to the Greek and Persian empires; became an independent power, 1747; war with British 1838-42 and again in 1878.

Government nominally monarchical, under one hereditary prince (Ameer), whose power varies with his own character and fortune. Religion, Mohammedanism prevails.

AFGHANISTAN—

Agriculture largely dependent on irrigation. Valley of Kabul and districts of Herat and Kandahar fertile regions. In most districts cultivable crops yield two harvests during the year; spring crops chiefly wheat, barley, peas, and beans; autumn, rice, millet, maize, and arzun. Many characteristic plants abound, as madder and castor oil; others yielding various gum-resins, as asafetida—largely exported to India; and leguminous plants and

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
commercial importance. Largest rivers. Halmund and Kabul. **Climate** varied; generally healthful; subject to intense extremes of heat and cold. **Cities.**—Kabul, capital, notable strategic and commercial center; population, 60.000. Herat, of great military and strategic importance; natural emporium of trade; 45,000. Kandahar, chief commercial center of south, 25,000.		shrubs from which gums like the well-known tragacanth of commerce is obtained. Fruits produced in greatest profusion; fresh or preserved staple food for large class; preserved fruits exported in large quantities, especially from Kandahar. Domestic animals include camels, excellent horses, two varieties of fat-tailed sheep, goats, etc. **Manufactures** include munitions of war, made at Kabul; silks, largely made at Kandahar; carpets at Herat; felts, sheepskin "postins," and rosaries. Chief imports, textiles, indigo, sugar, drugs, and tea; exports, largely wool, silk, fruit, nuts, asafetida, horses, and spices. **Minerals** abundant. Iron, lead, antimony, and sulphur produced; copper, gold, gems, and niter found.
CHINA **Area.**—Total area, 4,277,170 sq. m. China proper 1,532,420 sq. m. **Population.**—Recent estimates, 433.553,030: China proper, 407,-253,030. Majority of inhabitants Mongols; Manchus—former reigning family of that race—constitute only a small proportion. **Physical Features.**—China is shut off from the rest of Asia by deserts or lofty mountains, and only towards the northeast a natural highroad leads from it into Manchuria. It is generally hilly, even mountainous, but its two great rivers, the Hwang-ho, and Yang-tse-kiang, traverse in their lower courses a plain of exceeding fertility, 200,000 sq. m. in extent. **Climate** generally temperate but subject to wide annual range; summers hot, winters severe. **Cities.**—Peking, capital, consists of two walled cities. Imperial city and Chinese or commercial section; population, 700,000. Canton, a leading commercial city; population, 1,000,000. Shanghai, chief seaport; population, 651,000. **Hongkong,** an island near mouth of Canton River ceded to Great Britain, 1841; additional area on mainland leased to Britain by China, 1898; forms British Crown Colony. **Area,** total, 376 sq. m. Center of large trade; Chinese silk and tea trade largely through Hongkong. **Population,** 456,739. Victoria, capital. **Macao Island** at mouth of Canton River ceded to Portuguese during latter half of 16th century. **Area,** 5 sq. m. Trade, chiefly transit, in hands of Chinese; opium principal article. **Population,** 63,-991.	**CHINA** **History.**—Trustworthy history dates from about the era of Confucius, 6th century B. C. Tsin dynasty under which Great Wall was built began 249 B. C. In 220 A. D. country divided into the "Three Kingdoms." Complete unity of empire under Suy dynasty (590-618); period noted for promotion of science, education, industry, and commerce. Country invaded by Tartars 9th to 11th centuries; north occupied by Jenghiz Kahn 1215. Mongol dynasty established 1280; Ming, 1368. Manchus conquered country and founded last dynasty 1643. War with Great Britain, 1840-42, resulted in cession of Hongkong and opening of treaty ports. Amur country ceded to Russia 1858. War with Japan, 1894, resulted in defeat of China, independence of Korea, and cession of Formosa to Japan. In 1898 leases were granted on Port Arthur and Talienwan to Russia (later ceded to Japan), Wei-Hai-Wei, Great Britain, Kiau-Chau, Germany, and Bay of Kwang-chau, France. Revolution 1911-12; establishment of Republic February, 1912. **Government.**—Till 1911, an absolute monarchy. The superior offices being equally divided among Manchu and Chinese. As a result, however, of a wide-spread rebellion in 1911, a Republic was proclaimed, and the Manchu Emperor was forced to abdicate. **Education** along certain lines very general, yet large numbers of adults are illiterate. Larger cities have colleges for training candidates for government appointments.	**CHINA**— **Agriculture.** — Rice, sugar, cotton, indigo, etc., cultivated in south; cereals, peas, and beans in north. Culture of tea and silk extensive; most productive tea district south of Yang-tse-Kiang. Silkworms—native to China—reared in large numbers; silk of superior quality extensively produced. Opium grown in all provinces; area being gradually reduced. Vegetables, oil plants, and tobacco universal. Farm animals, oxen and buffaloes. **Manufactures.**—Chinese excel in manufactures of porcelain, silks, embroidery, and lacquered wares; carved goods—tortoise shell, ivory, horn—engraving, paper, ink also excellent. **Commerce.**—Imports, chief articles: Cotton, opium, rice, metals, and kerosene. Exports: Tea, silk. **Minerals.**—Coal in every province; probably most valuable deposits in the world. Iron ores abundant. Copper, tin, lead, silver, granite, porcelain clay, jasper, marble, porphyry, and gems found, Salt extensively produced.
INDIAN EMPIRE **Area.**—Total area, 1,789,154 sq. m.; British provinces, 1,097,901; native states, 691,253. **Population.**—315,132,537, viz. —British Provinces 1,087,204 sq. m., population, 244,267,542; Feudatory or Native States, 70,864,995. Baluchistan and tribes on the northwest frontier are all included in the above totals. **Physical Features.**—The Peninsula of India constitutes a well-defined geographical unit, shut off from the main body of Asia by the Himalayas and other mountain-	**INDIAN EMPIRE**— **History.**—Settled by Aryans at early period. Mohammedan invasions 11th century. Conquered by Genghis Khan, 1219. Visited by Vasco da Gama, 1497; Portuguese established trade, 1510. Mogul empire founded, 1519. English, Dutch, and French East India companies established, 1600,-2-4 British acquired Bombay 1662; Calcutta, 1698. Decline of Mogul empire, 1707; Persian invasion, Delhi sacked, inhabitants massacred, 1739. British successful in war with French, 1746-49. English	**INDIAN EMPIRE**— **Agriculture** supports seven-tenths of inhabitants. Crops include rice, wheat, sugar cane, tea. Chief districts Assam and Himalayas; coffee, eastern slopes of Ghauts; cotton, mainly on tablelands; fibers, jute leading product, Bengal; tobacco, most abundant on northern plains and in certain districts of Madras; opium culture Valley of Ganges and Central India; pepper on mountains in south; cinchona near Mysore and in Himalayas. Universal crops millet, pulse, oil seeds. Silk culture chiefly
		Schools for extension of western languages and sciences greatly increasing. Naval and military schools connected with different arsenals. **Religion.** — Chinese recognize three religions: Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism. Confucianism mainly professed by higher classes; majority of people Buddhists. Mohammedanism and Christianity both have large numbers of adherents.

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
ranges, whose passes are difficult to pass. Irrespective of the inner slopes of these mountains there are five distinct regions, viz.—(a) a great northern plain, which stretches from the Arabian Sea to the head of the Bay of Bengal, is watered by the rivers Indus and Ganges, and stretches eastward up the Brahmaputra into Assam; (b) a belt of hills and tablelands which bounds this plain in the south; (c) the plateau of the Deccan; (d and e) the two maritime lowlands being narrowed by the "Ghats." **Climate** varies with elevation. Generally hot everywhere except in mountain regions and on elevated tablelands. Heat of plains excessive. Climate greatly influenced by monsoons, periodical winds prevailing throughout southern Asia. **Cities.**—Calcutta, capital since 1773, chief commercial center of Asia; population, 1,222,313. Bombay, second commercial and chief manufacturing center of India; population, 979,445. Rangoon, third commercial city; population 293,316. Madras, fourth seaport in importance; seat of various societies and educational institutions; population, 518,616. Hyderabad, 500,623, Lucknow, 259,798.	acquired Lower Burma, 1826; Punjab, 1857. Sepoy rebellion, 1857. Sovereignty conferred on British Crown, 1858; Victoria proclaimed Empress of India, 1877. Upper Burma annexed, 1891. **Government.**—Executive vested in a Gov.-General, and a "Council" of 5 members, all appointed by Great Britain. There is also a "Legislative Council" with from ten to sixteen additional members, nominated by the Gov.-General, partly on the recommendation of non-official bodies. The local governments enjoy a large measure of independence. The native states are subject to the control of the Central Government represented by Residents or Political Agents. **Education.**—In British India about 28 per cent of boys of school age attend school; less than 4 per cent of girls. Head of national system, universities at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, and the Punjab, Normal schools in every Province. Engineering, art, and technical schools. **Languages.**—162 languages are spoken, but only 23 by more than 1 million persons. Hindi taking the lead. Aryan languages (Hindi, Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, Gujarathi, Uriya, Sindhi, etc.) are spoken by 75 per cent of population. **Religion.**—Hindus number nearly three-fourths of population; together with Mohammedans comprise 92 per cent of whole. Hindus. 217,587,000; Mohammedans, 66,623,412; Buddhists—mostly in Burma—10,721,449; Animists, 10,295,000; Sikhs, 3,014,446; Christians, 3,876,196.	in Bengal. Fruits of temperate and tropical zones grown. **Animals.**—Besides ordinary domestic animals India has the elephant, camel, humped cattle, yak, and Kashmir goat. **Manufactures.**—Native manufactures of fine textiles—chiefly silks, muslins, shawls, and rugs—and metal wares important. **Forests.**—Dense forests still cover large districts; area, 81,189,511 acres. South of the conifer forests of the Himalayas are extensive tracts of bamboo and sal; teak forests cover eastern slopes of the Ghauts. Timber of northwest mostly deodar. Sandalwood, ironwood, sissu satinwood, numerous palms (cocoanut, date, sago, and areca), banyan, and acacia trees found in various localities. **Minerals.**—Coal, iron, and salt abundant; gold, copper, silver, lead, antimony, tin, cobalt, and gems found; saltpeter and petroleum also obtained. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, yarns, textiles, etc., metals, and metal wares, provisions; exports, rice, jute, tea, coffee, spices, indigo, cotton, opium.
CEYLON.—An island, separated from India by the shallow Palk Strait, and rising from a broad coast-belt to 8,296 feet. **Area,** 25,332 sq. m. Surface of interior and south mountainous, surrounded by lowland plain; highest altitude 8,300 feet. **Climate** warm and uniform; unhealthful on coast. **Population,** 3,592,397. Colombo, on western coast, capital and chief seaport; population, 158,228; Kandy, 26,519, Galle, 37,316.	**CEYLON** **History.**—Island settled by Portuguese 1505; conquered by Dutch about 1658; became a British possession 1795; separate colony 1798; fell under British rule 1815. **Government.**—A crown Colony of Great Britain. **Religion,** Buddhism predominant. Government supports about one-third of the **schools.** There is a technical college, agricultural school. school of forestry, and industrial schools.	**CEYLON.**— **Agriculture** employs 66 per cent of the population. There are 2,773,657 acres under cultivation. Cocoanuts, rice and other grains. tea, cocoa, coffee, cinchona cinnamon, and tobacco largely grown **Live stock** consists of horses, cattle, goats. Exports, principal articles. rice and other grain, cotton goods, and coal. **Minerals** include plumbago and precious stones.

BRITISH COLONIES

Burma, a Province, including Arakan, and Tenasserim, is drained by the Irrawaddy and Salween, and extends eastward to Tibet, Yun-nan, Tong-king, and the Upper Mekong. Area, 236,734 sq. m., population, 10,490,624 (91 p. c. are Buddhists). The area within British borders occupied by Shans, Lushai, Kakhyen, and other tribes, not included above amounts to 25,750 sq. m. with a population of 520,000. Chief Towns, Mandalay, 182,498; Rangoon, 232,326; Maulmain, 55,785. **Andaman Islands,** a chain of hilly islands (2,720 ft.) well wooded.	Area, 2,500 sq. m., population, 18,340, of whom 12,877 at the penal settlement of Port Blair. **Nicobar Islands,** a group of islands to the south of the former. Area, 624 sq. m. Population, 6,310. Chief products, cocoa-nuts. **The Straits Settlements,** a Crown Colony, include detached territories, viz. — Penang Island, with Wellesley, the Dindings Malacca and Singapore. Total area, 1,472 sq. m., population, 572,249, including 81,933 Chinese, 215,058 Malays, 57,150 Indians, 5,058 Europeans. Staple exports: Tin, spices, gambier, gums.	**The Cocos or Keeling Islands** (8 sq. m., population 611), and **Christmas Island** (39 sq m., population 22), in the Indian Ocean, are dependencies. They export the products of the coco palm. **Protected Malay States.** — These are Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, Johor, and since 1909, the former Siamese States of Kelantan, Trenganu and Keda. Area about 48,000 sq. m., east. population, 1,733,000, including thousands of Chinese and a small number of aborigines. Trade chiefly through Singapore. Staple export; tin.

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
JAPAN **Area.**—Five large and numerous small islands, together with Chosen (Korea), the southern half of Sakhalin, and Kwantung (leased), form the empire of Japan. Area,	**JAPAN—** **History.**—An island empire of Asia. Founded, according to Japanese history, 660 B. C. Authentic history dates from 500 A. D. Authority of Mikado usurped by	**JAPAN—** **Agriculture** the chief industry. Principal food crops; Rice and other cereals, tea, sugar, wheat, barley, rye. Tea grown chiefly in the south of Nippon. Lacquer tree,

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
excluding Chosen and Kwantung, about 175,540 sq. m. **Population** of Japan proper, 51,591,342. Population of Taiwan (Formosa), 3,392,063. **Physical Features.**—Islands all mountainous and largely volcanic. Among the higher mountains several are volcanoes and extend above snow line—Fujiyama, sacred mountain of Japan, the highest (12,425 ft.). Coasts deeply indented and of great extent; length of line, 17,150 miles. Rivers short with rapid fall and abundant water; of great value for irrigation and water power. Volcanic eruptions and earthquake shocks frequent. Hot springs numerous. **Climate** temperate and healthful. Rainfall, abundant. Snowfall, especially west of mountains, enormous. Range of temperature very great. Mean temperature of Tokyo, January, 36.4 deg.; August, 77.6 deg., year, 56.3 deg. Rainfall, 60.4 inches. **Cities.**—Tokyo, capital. Commerce and manufactures important. Yokohama, chief treaty port with large foreign trade. Kyoto, until 1869, for centuries the residences of the Mikado. Osaka, manufacturing and commercial center of Japan; Nagasaki, one of chief commercial cities.	Shogun 1192. Islands visited by Marco Polo in the 13th century. Portuguese merchants and missionaries had access to islands 1543 to 1638. Native Christians persecuted from 1624. Country isolated, except restricted trade with Dutch, until American expedition under Perry, 1853, resulted in signing of commercial treaty, March 31, 1854. Commercial treaties with other countries followed. Revolution of 1868 overthrew power of Shogunate, reëstablishing authority of Mikado. Feudal system abolished 1871. Bonin Islands annexed 1876. Suppression of Satsuma rebellion, 1877. Ryukyu Islands annexed 1879. Constitution promulgated 1889. War with China, 1894-95, resulted, by Treaty of Shimonoseki, Pekin, 1895, in independence of Korea and acquisition by Japan of Taiwan (Formosa) and Pescadores islands. Japanese Sakhalin and lease of Kwantung ceded by Russia, 1905. Korea, now Chosen, annexed to Japan, 1910. **Government.**—A constitutional monarchy with an Emperor, an Advisory Cabinet, Privy Council, and an Imperial Diet of two Houses. Imperial Diet controls finances and administration of justice. **Education.**—Elementary education compulsory. Three universities and 75 normal schools. **Religion.**—Shintoism and Buddhism chief forms; absolute freedom of belief. Roman Catholics, adherents of Greek Church, and Protestants number about 150,000.	furnishing material for one of the oldest Japanese industries, largely cultivated in north of island. Mulberries furnish one of principal products. Silk production of much importance. Vegetables, oranges, peaches, apricots, grapes, pomegranates, melons, and chestnuts are also grown. Cattle and horses raised. **Manufactures, etc.**—Textile industries rapidly developing. Output of paper, matches, earthenware, manufactures of lacquered ware, matting, and hemp important. Firearms, ordnance, and ammunition used in Imperial army, manufactured at arsenals of Tokyo and Osaka; Maurata rifle invented in Japan. **Minerals.**—Japan has become one of the chief sources of the world's coal supply. Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron pyrites, antimony, manganese, sulphur, and petroleum also mined. Kaolin abundant for ancient and celebrated porcelain industry. **Commerce.**—Chief exports: Silk (raw), cotton, yarn, silk goods, copper, coal, tea, and matches. Chief imports: Raw cotton, oil cake, wool and woolen goods, petroleum, sugar and rice. Commerce chiefly with United States, China, India and Great Britain. **Products.**—Gold, silver, coal, sulphur and petroleum chief mineral products. Other resources include rice, camphor, sugar, tea, sweet potatoes, ramie, jute. Rice crop abundant. Chief exports, camphor and tea. **Agriculture** chief industry; fruits, rice, beans, tobacco, cereals and cotton. **Manufactures** chiefly coarse cotton cloth and paper. Twelve open ports. **Minerals** include gold, iron, coal, and copper.
TAIWAN (FORMOSA).—Area.—13,458 sq. m. Geysers and sulphur springs numerous. **Cities.**—Tainan, capital and principal seaport; population, 53,794. **Kwantung,** transferred by Russia to Japan, 1905. Controls Pacific terminus of Manchurian Railway, and serves as a gateway to Manchuria for Japanese commerce. Port Arthur and Dairen (Dalny) chief towns. **CHOSEN (Korea).—Area,** 86,000 sq. m. Surface mountainous; greatest elevation 4,500 ft. Chief river, Amnok. **Climate** in summer, though hot, modified by sea; winter cold very severe. **Population,** 13,125,027. Söul, population, 278,958. Ping-Yang, 146,000.	**TAIWAN** **History.**—First visited by Portuguese, 1590; taken by Dutch, 1642; by Chinese, 1683; ceded to Japan, 1895. **Education.**—An educational system has been established for Japanese and natives, for whom there are elementary schools, normal schools, a medical school, and a school for teaching the Japanese language to natives, and native languages to Japanese. **CHOSEN (KOREA)** **History** of great antiquity; country inhabited in 12th century B. C. Claimed by China from 1122 B. C.; last dynasty (Tsitsien) founded 1392; conquered by Japanese 1592; retaken by Koreans and Chinese 1598; second invasion, treaty relations established 1876. Ports open to other foreigners 1882; Chinese claim renounced and Korea declared independent 1895. Treaty of 1910, Korea was annexed to Japan and the title changed to "Chosen."	
PERSIA **Area,** 628,000 sq. m., divided into thirty-three provinces; length north to south, 700 miles; east to west, 900. **Population,** 9,000,000, of whom only 115,000 are non-Musulmans. The Tajiks are the leading race (nearly 7 millions), besides whom there are Kurds and Lur, Arabs, Mongols and Turkish tribes, and many others. **Physical Features.**—Surface an elevated plateau (6,000 to 8,500 ft.) bordered on north, west, and south by lofty mountains. Interior plateau largely an arid, treeless desert. Karun, chief river; Urumiah, largest lake. Maritime plains and mountain slopes clothed with fine forests. **Climate** subject to extremes; mountain valleys mild.	**PERSIA** **History.**—Kingdom founded by Cyrus 6th century B. C.; overthrown by Alexander 330; era of Seleucides followed. Parthian supremacy about 250. Second Persian empire 226 A. D.; climax of power 7th century. Conquered by Mohammedan Arabs 641. Came under Seljukes 1038; Kharesmians 1194. Taken by Mongols under Genghis Kahn 1223; ravaged by Timur 1399. Sufi dynasty 1499. Nadir Shah conquered India 1739. Reigning Turkoman dynasty founded 1795. War with England 1856. **Government.**—Similar to that of Turkey. Given a National Council in 1906, and a Constitution of limited powers in 1907. **Religion.**—About 90 per cent Mohammedans. Other sects in-	**PERSIA—** **Agricultural** and pastoral pursuits chief industries. Valleys and plains of the Karun extremely fertile. In northwest, wheat, barley, maize, tobacco, cotton, tropical nuts and fruits are grown. Rice—largest crop in Caspian provinces—sugar, opium, silk, dyes, and drugs important products. Grapes grown largely for raisins and wine. Wines of Shiraz, Ispahan, and other districts famous. Fruits common to temperate regions produced in profusion. Wool one of most valuable products. **Manufactures** include shawls, carpets, dyes, wine, sugar, leather, opium, silks, felts, copper and brass wares, glazed tiles, etc.; mosaic work in bone and ivory, and enameling on metal done in Shiraz.

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
Chief Towns.—Teheran, 280,000; Tabriz, 180,000; Ispahan, 80,000; Mashhad, 50,000; Balfrush, 50,000.	clude Parsis, Jews, Armenians and Nestorians. **Education.**—Schools have been reorganized on European lines under a Ministry of Education. There are a number of colleges supported by public funds, a polytechnic school, and a political school.	**Commerce** centers largely at Tabriz, Teheran, and Ispahan. Imports chiefly textiles, sugar, tea, petroleum.
TURKEY IN ASIA **Turkey in Asia** includes (a) the Peninsula of Asia Minor, an extensive plateau which extends eastward into the Highlands of Armenia (Mount Ararat, 16,920 ft.) and Kurdistan; (b) the narrow plateau of Syria (Mt. Hermon, 9,150 ft.); (c) the low-plains of the Euphrates and Tigris; and (d) the Western Highlands of Arabia. **Area, Divisions, etc.**—Area, 693,610 sq. m., comprising: Asia Minor, 197,711; Armenia and Kurdistan, 71,990; Mesopotamia, 143,250; Syria—including Palestine—114,530; Arabia, 170,300. **Population,** 17,683,500; Asia Minor, 10,509,200; Armenia and Kurdistan, 2,470,900. Mesopotamia, 2,000,000; Syria, 3,675,100; Arabia, 1,050,000. Turks, 6,800,000 Syrians and Arabs, 5,300,000; Greeks, 1,000,000. **Physical Features, etc.**—Characteristic features: Elevated plateau of Asia Minor extending eastward into the highlands of Armenia and Kurdistan (Mount Ararat, 16,920 ft.); narrow plateau of Syria traversed by the two mountain chains of the Lebanon of the Bible; vast plains of the Euphrates and Tigris; and the Western Highlands of Arabia. Chief rivers, Euphrates and Tigris; Jordan most famous. Ash, oak, beech, planes, evergreens, etc., on mountains of Asia Minor; Lebanon Mountains chiefly wooded with pines, oak, sycamore, and oleander. **Climate** generally warm and pleasant but varies greatly owing to inequalities of elevation. **Cities.**—Smyrna, chief seaport; commercial center of the Levant; population, 225,000 Bagdad, numerous manufactures; 200,000. Aleppo, extensive commerce and	**TURKEY IN ASIA—** **Government.**—The country is divided into vilayets under same general government as Turkey in Europe. In 1913 reforms for the Asiatic provinces were drawn up granting General Councils in the vilayets to decide matters of local interest. Courts have been organized, and in order to ensure the strict enforcement of the laws and regulations the Empire has been divided into six sectors over which is an Inspection-General who owes his appointment to the foreign Powers. **Education** is nominally obligatory for children of both sexes. Besides elementary and middle-class schools there are a number of foreign schools conducted by French, English and American missionaries. **Races.**—According to race or language there are 7,128,000 Turks, 5,000,000 Arabs, Syrians, and other Semites, 1,612,000 Kurds, 760,000, Armenians, 1,100,000 Greeks, 330,000 Caucasians. **Religion.**—Mohammedanism is the established state religion. The Sultan as Caliph is supreme head. Other religions have a semi-official recognition. **Government.—Aden** in the south a British possession since 1839. Interior of Arabia under independent rulers; **Oman** a sultanate in the southeast and **Hadramaut** in south, self-governing but in British sphere of influence; **Nejd** or central Arabia under influence of Wahhabees.	**TURKEY IN ASIA—** **Agriculture, etc.**—Soil of Asia Minor and valleys of Lebanon extremely fertile. Irrigation works being conducted in Asia Minor by European capital. Jewish and German farm colonies in Palestine. Chief products: Tobacco, cereals, cotton, hemp, flax, and fruits—oranges, dates, raisins, figs, almonds, etc. Silkworms largely raised. Horses, cattle, sheep, and angora goats raised in large numbers. Camel ordinary beast of burden. Fisheries yield pearls, mother-of-pearl, and sponges. **Manufactures** mostly domestic; include saddlery, swords, firearms, leather, coarse linen, woolen and cotton goods, shawls, carpets, wine, silver and gold thread, and laces. **Commerce.**—Chief imports, coal, provisions, clothing, cereals, ironware, oils, etc.; exports, grapes, wine, mohair, barley, cocoons, opium, coffee, madder, valonia, etc. **Minerals** include coal, iron, copper, alum, silver, lead, emery, chrome, and asbestos, and rock salt in Armenia and Asia Minor. Mineral riches practically untouched.
manufacturers; 135,000. Beirut, fortified seaport; 185,000. Erzerum, 40,000; Brussa, 75,000; Mosul, 61,000; Manissa, 36,000; Kaisaria, 72,000; Diarbekr, 34,000; Trebizond, 35,000.		
PALESTINE. — Extent. — Palestine, endeared to the Christian world as the scene of the labors of Jesus Christ, is at the present time a mere geographical expression. Within its old limits, from "Dan to Beersheba" (150 m.), its area is about 12,000 sq. m.. but including the whole of the Livas of Beirut, Damascus. and the Hauran, it extends over 27,000 sq. m. **Physical Features.**—Four great longitudinal divisions, parallel to the Mediterranean, viz.:—(a) A maritime plain, narrow in the north, but gradually widening to the south of Mount Carmel, of exceeding fertility; (b) a belt of mountains and plateaus, beginning in the north with the Lebanon (10,070 feet), and continued in the limestone hills of Galilee and Judæa; (c) a long valley, including the Bek'aa on the Upper Litani (Leontes), between the Lebanon and the Jebellesh Sharki (Anti-Libanus, 8,724 feet)	**PALESTINE** **Government.**—The Livas of Damascus (with the Hauran) and Beirut, and the independent districts of Jerusalem and Lebanon, the latter since 1861 under a Christian governor. **Race and Language.**—Arabic is the common language, but the constituent elements of the population are most varied. The peasantry is mainly of Aramaic stock, and the Mongols, who ruled in the land before the Exodus, and later immigrants have become merged in it. In the east the Arabs are more or less of pure extraction. The later immigrants include Greeks, Jews, Germans, and numerous other nationalities. **Religion.** — Mohammedanism predominates, but is split up into a number of sects, including the Metawileh (of Persian origin), the Ismailiye, the Anseiriyeh, and the Druses. Among the numerous	**PALESTINE—** **Productions.**—Palestine is still a land of corn, vine, and oil (olive); and in its fertile plains wheat still yields a hundredfold as of yore. Sheep and goats are the commonest domestic animals. Coal is found near Beirut and Saida, amber near Saida, and asphalte near Hasbiya. **Commerce.**—The chief ports are Beirut, Saida (Sidon), Akka (Acre), Haifa, and Yafa (Joppa). Railways connect Yafa with Jerusalem, Beirut with Damascus, and Haifa with the railway now being built from Damascus to Mecca. The exports include wheat, raisins, apricots, oranges and lemons, oil, sesame, tobacco, raw silk, and wool.

ASIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
and Jebel esh Sheikh (Hermon, 9,150 feet), and the Ghor ("Depression") of the Jordan, ending in the Dead Sea (1,292 feet below sea-level); (d) a plateau region to the east of the Jordan, upon which rises the volcanic Jebel Hauran (5,910) feet) and which merges gradually into the desert. **Climate.**—Jerusalem, 2,440 feet above the sea; mean temperature 63 deg. (February 47 deg., August 76 deg.); rainfall 22 inches. Beirut, mean temperature 69 deg. (January 55 deg., August 82 deg.); rainfall 36 inches. Snow falls not infrequently at Jerusalem, and remains for months on Mount Hermon. The rains fall from the end of October to the beginning of May.	Christian sects the Maronites, chiefly in the Lebanon, form an interesting element. **Towns.** — Damascus, 150,000; Beirut, 105,000; Jerusalem 41,-335; Jaffa, 20,000. **Samos.**—Island principality off the cost of Asia Minor, under sovereignty of Turkey. Important center of Greek commerce, civilization, and art, 6th century B. C. **Area,** 180 sq. m. Surface mountainous; valleys extremely fertile. **Climate** dry and bracing. Products, wine, olive oil, grapes, and hides. Rich **mines** and quarries exist. **Population,** 53,400 Greek Christians. Vathy, capital.	
ARABIA most westerly of the three great peninsulas of Asia. Surface largely a table land; average elevation, 3,500 feet; highest elevations in mountains of Oman in southeast (9,900 feet) and Mt. Sinai (8,535 feet) in northwest. **Climate** one of driest in the world. **Cities.**—Jeddah in El Hejaz on Red Sea, population about 30,-000; Maskat, in Oman, population 24,000, key to Persian Gulf; Aden, controlled by British, key to Red Sea; Hodeidah, on Red Sea, port of Sana; latter largest town in Yemen, center of great coffee district. Within the Turkish province of El Hejaz lie the holy cities of the Mohammedans: Mecca the birthplace and Medina the burial place of the prophet.		**ARABIA—** **Agricultural** methods rude. Most fertile tracts in southwest in Yemen. Products include dates, cereals, bananas, tamarinds, and in southwest coffee, sugar, cotton, spices, drugs, gums, and resins. Interior plateau of the Nejd famous for its horses and camels. **Manufactures** consist of hair tent-covers and bags and coarse linen and woolen fabrics woven by Bedouin women. Has large trade by caravan and sea from surrounding country. **Minerals** include silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and precious stones.

BHUTAN, an independent State in the East Himalaya, nominally under the rule of an incarnation of Buddha, but practically a military oligarchy. **History.**—Original inhabitants, Tephus, conquered by colonists from Tibet, 17th century. Outrages on British subjects led to invasion by England, 1864, and annexation of tracts with passes to hills. **Area,** 20,000 sq. m. Country lies within the Himalayas; **forests** extensive. Rice, Indian corn, millet, musk, and silk chief products. Native ponies noted for superior strength; large numbers raised. **Manufactures** coarse cotton and woolen cloths, buffalo leather, guns, and fine steel swords. Trade small, exports, wool, musk, caoutchouc, and ponies. **Population,** estimated 250,000. Buddhism—of corrupt form—prevailing **religion.** Punakha, capital.

NEPAL, an independent State on the southern slope of the Himalayas, tributary to China since 1791. **Area,** 54,000 sq. m. Kingdom lies within the Himalayas. Surface comprises highland region (10,000 to 16,000 feet), Nepal Valley (4,000 to 10,000) and southern lowlands sloping to Indian plain. **Forests** rich in valuable woods. **Climate** ranges from arctic through temperate to tropical. **Agriculture** widely pursued. Rice staple culture and chief food plant; wheat, barley, ginger, sugar cane, potatoes, tobacco, also grown. Fruit abundant; orange, citron, peach, cherry, etc., cultivated. Domestic animals, horses, dogs, shawl-goats, and sheep. Chief imports: Cattle, etc., salt, petroleum, leather and metal wares, cotton goods; exports, drugs, resins, dyes, jute, oil seeds, spices, timber, saltpeter, etc. **Minerals,** iron, copper, sulphur, jasper, marble, and rock salt. **Population** estimated 5,000,000; Ghurkas dominant race. **Religion,** Buddhism. Khatmandu, capital.

SIAM.—

History.—Siamese settled in upper valleys of Menam middle of 7th century; Ayuthia established 1350; trade with Europe opened 16th century. French protectorate over Cambodia acknowledged 1867. Total **area** of Siam 195,000 sq. m. **Forests** in north include teak, rosewood, ebony, cedar, sapan, ironwood, resinous shrubs, and wild indigo; on coasts, mangroves, banyan, pandanus, areca, cocoanut, and other palms and rattans abound. **Climate** hot but not unhealthful. Rice leading **agricultural** product; staple article of food and chief export; other products, pepper, salt, dried fish, cattle, and sesame. Coffee, cotton, hemp, and tobacco grown. Fruits abundant. Silk, cotton cloths, shoes, gold and silver work, paper, tiles, jars, mats, arrack, and sugar made. **Minerals** gold, tin, iron, coal, silver, petroleum, and gems. **Population** (estimated), 6,250,000. Bangkok, capital and only important seaport; chief manufacturing center; population, 628,675. **Education** chiefly in hands of Buddhist priests, under an English inspector. Teachers' Normal College established, 1892. Siamese official language. Buddhism predominant **religion.**

FRENCH INDO-CHINA.—History.—French intervention began in Indo-China in 1787. Possessions now comprise the colonies of Cochin-China (acquired 1862), Tongking (annexed 1884), and the protectorates of Annam (acknowledged 1884) and Cambodia (1863), together with the Laos territory ceded 1893 and 1896. Total **area,** 256,000 sq. m. Annam in great part mountainous and heavily wooded; Cambodia and Cochin-China mainly vast alluvial plains; deltas of Tongking and Cochin-China wide, fertile districts densely populated. Mekong chief river. **Climate** governed by monsoon winds; wet and dry seasons alternate. Rich in **agricultural** resources. Sugar, cotton, tobacco, rice, and spices, principal products of alluvial districts; maize, other cereals, coffee, manioc, betal nut, and fruits also grown. Bamboo, excellent timber, india rubber, copra, and dye and medicinal plants produced. Exports: Largely rice, fish, salt, sugar, and spices. **Minerals** include gold, silver, tin, lead, and copper, coal and salt. **Population,** 16,-315,063; chiefly Mongols and Malays. Saigon, chief seaport, capital of Cochin-China, and also of French Indo-China; population, 48,783; Pnom Penh, capital of Cambodia; 45,000; Hanoi, capital of Tongking, 103,000; Hue, capital city of Annam; 50,000. Buddhism prevails; Christians said to number 830,000. **Government** administered by a Governor-General through a Lieutenant-Governor and Residents General.

AFRICA

Geographical Facts

Position and Extent. — Attached to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez, separated from Europe by the Mediterranean. Africa extends 4,980 miles from north to south (Cape Blanco in Tunis to C. Agulhas), and 4,840 miles from west to east (Cape Verde to C. Guardafui).

Area, including Madagascar and other islands, approximately 12,000 000 sq. m. Length north and south, 4,980 miles; east and west, 4,840 miles.

Population (estimated), 131,097,000, or 12 to a sq. m.

Physical Features.—Nearly all Africa is a plateau. There are no extensive lowlands, but a few localities are depressed below the level of the sea (Shot Melrir, Siwah, Fayum) The mean elevation is 1,975 feet. The Atlas Mountains form a distinct Highland region (Ayashin, 14,150 feet). In the Abyssinian Highlands Ras Dashan rises 15,200 feet, but the loftiest summits of all Africa are found in the East African Lake region Kilimanjaro, 19,270 feet; Kenia, 17,180 feet; Ruwenzori, 16,815 feet).

Hydrography.—Among the rivers the Nile is the most famous, but the Congo has the largest basin. Other rivers are the Niger, the Zambesi, and the Orange River. Among the continental basins (having no drainage to the sea), those of Lake Tsad, Lake Ngami, Lake Rudolf and the Hawash, are the most considerable. The largest lakes are the Victoria Nyanza (28,100 sq. m.), Tsad (8,000 sq. m.), Tanganyika (12,630 sq. m.), Nyassa (10,500 sq. m.), and Rudolf (3,950 sq. m.)

Climate. — Only one-fifth of Africa lies within the temperate zones. At the sea-level a mean temperature of less than 68 deg. is experienced only in Barbary and in the coast-region of South Africa from Durban to Mossameses. The Mediterranean coasts and a portion of Cape Colony have winter rains, while the greater part of the continent has tropical rains. Two extensive regions — viz., the Sahara, in the north, and the Kalahari with adjoining districts, in the south, are almost rainless.

ABYSSINIA

An ancient Christian kingdom, is in the main a country of lofty plateaus, intersected by deep valleys, and surmounted by lofty mountains (Ras Dashan, 15,200 feet.) The Blue Nile rises in Lake Tasna (5,760 feet).

Climate.—Three zones, viz., Kola (the hot lowlands); Voina Deka (the "Land of the Vine"), 5,000—7,900 feet; and the Deka, or High Plateau. Gondar (6,300 feet), mean temperature 67 deg., rainfall 34 inches.

Area, including dependencies, etc., 432,432 sq. m., with valuable trees.

Population, 8,000,000 chiefly Ethiopians. Harar, fortified Galla town, 50,000. Adis Abeba, capital of Abyssinia, 30,000.

Political and Social Facts

History.—Continent, with exception of Egypt and northern coast, known to ancients as Lybia. Egypt—peopled from Asia—seat of earliest civilization; date of first dynasty and founding of Memphis variously estimated as 5004 and 4400 B. C.; conquest by Assyrians 7th century. In 3d century Carthage disputed empire of the world with Rome. Saracens conquered Northern Africa 637-709 A. D. Vasco da Gama doubled Cape of Good Hope and explored coast 1497. South Africa colonized by Dutch 1652. Bruce discovered source of Blue Nile 1772; Livingston made explorations in southeastern and central Africa from 1840 to 1873; Stanley in 1871, '74, '79, '87.

Political.—With exception of the sultanate of Morocco, the kingdom of Abyssinia, and the republic of Liberia, the African continent is divided, politically, among European powers.

Races.—1. Negroes, 87,517,000, classed into Sudan Negroes, Bantu, and the scattered tribes of Pygmies among them. 2. Hamites, 10,964,000—viz., Berbers and Tuareg, in Barbary and the Sahara; Copts, Beja, and Nuba, in the Nile Valley; Agua, etc., in Abyssinia; Danakil, Somal, and Galla, in East Africa. 3. Semites, 26,044,000, including Arabs and Abyssinians, both much mixed with Berber and Negro blood. 4. Hottentots and Bushmen, 420,000 in South Africa. 5. Malays, principally in Madagascar, 2,516,000. 6. Europeans, 3,145,000, of whom 961,000 are in Continental North Africa, 1,115,000 in South Africa, and only 61,000 in tropical Africa. 7. Hindus and other Asiatics, as laborers in the Mascarenhas, 401,000; Turks, in Egypt, etc.

Religion. — Mohammedanism, introduced by Arabs, prevails in north and east and in certain Soudan States; adherents, 60,061,000. Orthodox Christians confined to European settlements in south and north; corrupted form of Christianity survives among Copts of Egypt and Abyssinians; total, 6,208,000. Jews number 258,000; Buddhists, 335,000; Pagans, comprising natives of Central and South Africa, 70,078,000.

ABYSSINIA—

History.—Visited by Portuguese 1492; the various small monarchies united in one kingdom 1855; overthrown by British 1868; Italian protectorate declared 1889; independence recognized 1896.

Education restricted to teachings of secular and regular clergy. Abyssinians mostly members of Alexandrian Church.

Government a feudal monarchy under an emperor.

Natural Resources

Vegetation, etc.—Fertile regions of north characterized by evergreen, oak, pine, cypress, and cork tree; cereals and semi-tropical fruits are grown. Date palm abundant; fruit constitutes chief food of natives; deleb and doum palms found farther south. Fertile oases of Sahara abound in groves of palm and olive. Among cultivated and indigenous plants of Nile valley are papyrus, cotton, lotus, wheat, rice, etc. Vegetation of Abyssinia resembles that of Southern Europe; coffee plant native here. Principal wooded area—estimated by Stanley 321,057 sq. m.—lies between Kongo and great lakes; dense forests of this region contain trees of extraordinary height. Valuable products of western and tropical Africa are coffee, gum, copal, banana, peanut, monkey-bread tree, tamarind and custard apple.

Minerals.—Except in South Africa, the coast regions, and extreme north, mineralogy of continent little known. Gold fields of the Transvaal richest known; furnish one-third of world's product; most valuable diamond mines in the world in South Africa. Iron, coal, copper, and lead occur in Cape Colony and Natal, and excellent iron ores are found in Algeria. Salt is a valuable product.

Industry and Commerce

ABYSSINIA

Agriculture. — Cotton, sugar cane, vine, and date palm flourish in many districts; little land under cultivation. Chief products, cereals, coffee, cotton, "tef," sugar cane, hops, fruit. Pastoral interests dominate; large herds of cattle, sheep, and goats raised; excellent horses and long-wooled sheep in higher elevations.

Manufactures primitive; some cloth, and working of leather and metals, etc. Caravan trade important; hides, skins, ivory, wax, gum, coffee, gold, ostrich feathers, etc., exchanged for manufactured articles.

Minerals include sulphur, rock salt, gold, silver, antimony, and iron.

AFRICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
LIBERIA **Area,** 40,000 sq. m. Coast lands generally low and sandy; interior hills and mountains covered with beautiful forests, diversified by well-watered, fertile valleys; largest rivers St. Johns and St. Pauls. **Climate** Unhealthful, seasons wet and dry; hottest month January; heat mitigated by almost constant land and sea breezes. **Population,** 1,500,000 to 2,100,000. Monrovia, capital; population, including Krootown, 8 000.	**LIBERIA—** **History.**—Country settled 1822 by free negroes, sent out under American Colonization Society; declared independent, 1847. **Government.**—Republic with executive legislative and judicial departments modeled after the United States. **Religion and Education.**—The Americo-Liberians are all Protestant (Anglican, Presbyterian, Baptist, or Methodist). There are several American missions at work and one French Roman Catholic. The government educational system is supplemented by mission schools, instruction being given both to American and to native negroes.	**LIBERIA** **Agriculture.**—Coffee—renowned for its excellence—and ginger, chief products. Maize, rice, cotton, arrowroot, sugar cane, cereals, and vegetables readily produced. Fruits abundant and finely flavored. Exports: Leading articles, coffee, palm oil and palm kernels, rubber, cocoa, sugar, arrowroot, ivory, hides, and piassava; imports, textiles, clothing, provisions, hardware, tobacco, furniture, etc.
MOROCCO **Area,** estimated at 219,000 sq. m.; southern frontier toward Sahara unsettled. Country comprises a "Tell" or fertile region opening upon the Atlantic an elevated region beyond traversed by ranges of Atlas Mountains (Ayashiu 14,150 feet), and the eastern or desert region of Sahara. Coast district intersected by numerous short rivers, Muluya largest. **Climate** warm and generally healthful. Northwest has sufficient rain from October to March; droughts not uncommon in southwest. **Cities.**—Fez, northern capital; leading commercial city; population 101,820. Morocco, southern capital, has manufactures of morocco leather; 60,034. Tangier, seaport and chief center.	**MOROCCO—** **History.**—The Mauritania of the ancients; conquered by the Arabs about 700. Present dynasty, Scheriffs, pretended descendants of Mohammed, established 1516. Most flourishing period of country 1579-1603. Slavery of Christians abolished 1814; piracy prohibited 1817. **Government.** — An absolute despotism. Morocco is now virtually a French Protectorate. **Population,** 4,450,000, mostly Berbers and descendants of Arabs.	**MOROCCO—** **Agriculture.** — Soil of coast region and mountain valleys fertile; yields abundantly under rudest cultivation. Products wheat, barley, Indian corn, hemp, henna, and tropical and subtropical fruits; dates a regular crop in south. Wealth of Arabs consists of cattle, horses, sheep, and ostriches. **Manufactures** comprise carpets, fezzes, leather, woolens, silks, jewelry, saddlery, earthenware, etc. **Mineral** deposits — undeveloped — include iron, gold, silver, manganese, antimony, lead, etc.; fine amethysts found.
EGYPT **Area and Physical Features.**—400,000 sq. m. Great natural features are River Nile and desert. The Nile has its source in Victoria Nyanza; by its annual inundation and deposit of loam is great fertilizer of Egypt. Suez Canal, 87 miles long, connects Mediterranean with Red Sea. **Population,** 11,139,978; 537,631 nomadic. Nile Valley and delta most densely peopled. Copts descendants of ancient Egyptians dwell chiefly in Upper Egypt. Arabic language spoken. **Climate** of Upper Egypt Continuously hot and dry; farther north hot season is April-November; temperate, December - March. Rainfall scanty, except in delta. **Cities.**—Cairo, capital, on Nile; founded by Saracens, 970; contains museum of antiquities, mosques; population, 1907, 654,476. Alexandria, founded 332 B. C., commercial center and chief-seaport; 332,246. Port Said, at mouth of Suez Canal, 49,884. **Anglo-Egyptian Soudan** extends from Egyptian frontier to Uganda and Belgian Congo and from Red Sea to confines of Wadai. **Area** about 984,520 sq. m. **Population,** 2,600,000. Chief towns: Khartum, 53,520; Omdurman, capital, formerly Dervish capital, 42,779; Wady Halfa, Convention of 1899 provides for Governor-General appointed by Egypt with consent of Great Britain.	**EGYPT—** **History.**—One of the earliest seats of civilization; renowned alike for its great antiquity and former splendor. Modern history begins with conquest by Mohammedans, 638 A. D.; taken by Mamelukes, 1250; became Turkish province, 1517. Invaded by Napoleon, 1798; restored to Turkey, 1801. New era began with Mehemet Ali, founder of present dynasty; reigned, 1805-49. Suez Canal opened, 1869. Native revolt under Arabi Pasha, 1881, suppressed by British; English financial adviser appointed. Mahdists in Soudan revolted 1881-85; conquered, 1899. **Government,** principality tributary to Turkey. Power nominally in hands of Khedive and Ministry, supported since 1882 by British advisers. **Religion,** Mohammedanism dominant. Moslems number 10,400,000; Christians, Copts, 700,000; Jews, 40,000. Supreme religious and judicial authority vested in Sheikh ul Islam.	**EGYPT—** **Agriculture.**—Vast reservoir for flood waters of Nile at Assuan; irrigated area constantly increasing. Perennial irrigation assures two or three crops annually: in winter, cereals; summer, cotton, sugar, and rice; autumn, rice, maize, and vegetables. Chief products: Wheat, maize, cotton, beans. Date most important fruit; fig, orange, lemon, and olive plantations exist. Domestic **animals,** including dromedary, horse, donkey, camel, sheep, and ox. **Manufactures** chiefly cotton, linen, and woolen textiles, leather, coarse pottery, glassware, embroideries, and cigarettes. **Mineral** resources limited. Quarries comprise granite, syenites, porphyry, marble, alabaster, limestone, and sandstone.

AFRICA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA Comprises the Provinces of **Cape of Good Hope** (formerly Cape Colony), **Natal, Transvaal,** and **Orange Free State** (Orange River Colony). **Physical Features.**—The country rises in terraces to the pastoral upland region of the interior. The loftiest mountain is the Compass Berg, 8,900 feet. **Area** including dependencies, 276,995 sq. m. chief rivers Orange and Olifants. Coast line, 1,225 miles, contains few harbors **Climate** generally healthful, dry and temperate. Karroo plateau and Orange River plains subject to droughts. Rain falls in eastern districts in summer, in western in winter. **Population,** including dependencies, 2,563,024, of which 583,177 are white. Cape Town, capital, seaport, and railway terminus; population, 1911, 67,000. Kimberley, diamond mining center, 30,000. Port Elizabeth, seaport, 31,000. **NATAL.**—The Colony, including Zululand, etc., extends from the Indian Ocean to the summit of the Drakenberg, and thus enjoys a variety of climate. Colony well watered; Tugela principal river. **Climate** in general pleasant and healthful; coast subtropical; interior cooler. **Area,** 35,371 sq. m. **Population,** 1,191,958. Pietermaritzburg, capital, 30,539. Durbaa, leading port and railway terminus, 72,512. **TRANSVAAL.**—A British Colony, formerly known as the South African Republic. Area (including Swaziland) 117,732 sq. m. Chief rivers, Limpopo and Vaal. **Forests** confined chiefly to river courses and mountain gorges. **Climate** generally healthful. **Population,** 1,676,611. Pretoria, capital; 48,609. Johannesburg, founded 1886, largest and most important town: mining center of Witwatersrand gold fields; population, 237,220. **ORANGE FREE STATE.**—A Boer Republic from 1854-1900, now a British Colony. **Area,** 50,392 sq. m., population, 387,315, including 143,420 whites. **Climate** temperate and healthful.	**UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA** **History.**—By the South Africa Act 1909, the Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony are united to form the Union of South Africa. Discovered by Portuguese 1487; colonized by Dutch, 1650-52; immigration of Huguenots, 1686; occupied by British, 1796, and again 1806; finally ceded to Great Britain 1815; representative government obtained 1853; responsible government 1872; Zulu war 1879. **Government.**—Governor appointed by Crown, responsible Ministry and Legislature of two Houses, both elective. **Education.**—In 1904, white children received instruction in some form, and also native children. Aided schools, 4,111, 1 university and 4 colleges. **Religion.**—Dutch Reformed, leading church. Methodist, Episcopalian, and Presbyterian churches. **NATAL** **History.**—Discovered by Portuguese 1497; Dutch settlements 1719-21; British 1824; Boer immigration (Pietermaritzburg founded) 1837; became a separate crown colony 1856; became an original province of the Union of South Africa 1910. **Government.** — Governor, responsible Ministers, and two Legislative Houses. **Education.**—Schools are provided for both European and native children. **TRANSVAAL** **History.**—Country colonized by Boers who left the Cape Colony 1835. Independence recognized 1852. Country annexed by Great Britain 1877. Revolted 1880-81 and self-government restored under suzerainty of Great Britain; in 1884 British control restricted to foreign affairs. War declared against Great Britain, October, 1899; Boers defeated and country annexed by the British in 1902; became an original province of Union of South Africa, 1909. **Education.**—School enrollment, 54,494. Dutch Reformed, Anglican, and Lutheran principal religious denominations. **ORANGE FREE STATE** **History.**—First settled by Boers who emigrated from the Cape Colony in 1836 and following years. Annexed by Great Britain 1848; independence declared, constitution proclaimed 1854. War with Great Britain 1899-1902 resulted disastrously to the Republic and the country was annexed by Great Britain, became an original province of Union of South Africa 1910.	**UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA—** **Agriculture.**—Leading products Wheat, oats, barley, mealies, kaffir corn, rye, tobacco. Vine, extensively cultivated. **Live Stock** industry one of the two leading sources of wealth sheep farming ranks first; farms often comprise 3,000 to 15,000 acres. Ostrich farming also successful. **Manufactories** limited to flour mills, breweries, tanneries, tobacco factories, etc. **Commerce** largely with United Kingdom. Imports, chiefly textiles, clothing, and provisions; exports, raw gold, diamonds, wool, Angora hair, ostrich feathers. **Minerals** of vast importance. Diamond output 2,500,000 carats annually; value, $25,000,000; first discovered 1867; copper output, value $2,000,000. Coal, asbestos, salt, tin, and gold are produced. **NATAL** **Agriculture.**—Soil of great fertility. Area cultivated: 450,000 acres by Europeans. 500,000 by natives; leading crops, maize, sugar, tea, and wattle bark. Pastoral pursuits important. **Live stock:** Cattle, goats, sheep, horses, pigs. Colony rich in minerals, chiefly coal, also asbestos, fireclay, gold, graphite. **TRANSVAAL** **Agriculture.**—Country adapted to **agriculture** and grazing. Chief industry raising of **live stock.** **Manufactures** include products of iron foundries, breweries, flour mills, brick and tile works, etc. Exports include gold, diamonds, wool, cattle, hides, ostrich feathers, ivory, etc. Richest **mineral** section of South Africa; gold leads in importance, most productive field Witwatersrand. Value of diamond output $6,500,000. Silver, copper, lead, tin, and lime produced in quantity; cobalt, iron, zinc, bismuth, platinum, cinnabar exist. **ORANGE FREE STATE** **Agriculture.**—Colony consists of undulating plains, excellent for grazing, and wide tracts for agriculture. Live stock, chiefly sheep, cattle, and horses. **Commerce** conducted through ports of the Cape Colony and Natal; imports Chiefly cereals, clothing, wood, hardware, and merchandise.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

ALGERIA.—History.—Original inhabitants Numidians or Berbers, conquered by Romans and Vandals. Turkish possession 1519 to 1710. Piratical power 16th to 19th centuries; defeated by United States 1815. Algiers taken by France 1815; Constantine, 1837; Kabyles subdued and Abd-el-Kader captured 1847.

Area, 343,500 sq. m.; divided into two great divisions, Northern and Southern Algeria. Algeria present four distinct regions: The mountainous but fertile coastal territory extending inland from the Mediterranean (Tell); the plateau of the Shats; the Great Atlas Mountains; and the Algerian Sahara extending indefinitely to the south; the latter a vast region of oasis, each with numerous towns and villages

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

surrounded by groves of date-palm, fig, and olive. Chief rivers Sheliff and Seybuse.

Climate on northern mountain slopes equable; marshy plains unhealthful. Winters mild, rain abundant.

Forest area 6,559,490 acres; on 645,000 acres are cork-oak trees.

Agriculture chief industry. Agricultural population, 3,322,520—213,756 Europeans. Chief products; wheat, barley (about 3½ million acres in each crop), oats, maize, potatoes, beans, flax, and tobacco cultivated. Vine thrives; other products: Orange, date, mandarin, citron, banana, pomegranate, almond, fig; olive oil is an important industry.

Live Stock includes horses, mules, asses, camels, cattle, sheep, goats, and pigs.

Fisheries extensive; 1908, 5,172 persons employed.

Minerals valuable; in 1909, 44 mines were worked for iron, zinc, lead, mercury, copper, antimony and petrol.

Population.—5,563,828; natives, 4,768,306; in 1906, French, 449,420; Spaniards, 117,475; Jews, 64,645; other foreigners, 79,362.

Algiers, capital, leading seaport and most important coaling station in the Mediterranean, 138,240; Oran, 100,499; Constantine, 46,806.

Primary and infant **schools,** and other institutions for higher instruction at Algiers, Tlemcen, and Constantine. Natives Mohammedans.

Territory governed as detached part of France through Governor-General.

TUNIS.—History.—Invaded by French 1270; by Spanish, 1535; became a Turkish province 1575; ruled by beys and long noted as a piratical State. Occupied by France 1881.

Area, 51,000 sq. m.

Physical Features similar to those of Algeria. Atlas ranges separated by wide, fertile basin of Mejerda, chief river. Valleys well watered; cork forests important. Numerous rich, well populated oases.

Climate generally healthful; thermometer rarely rises to 92 deg.

Agriculture leading industry; cereals, fruits, olives, nuts, and the vine cultivated. Olive trees, 11,428,660; date trees, 1,350,000; wine product, 6,500,000 gallons.

Live Stock, 1908, horses, 28,772; cattle, 159,272; sheep, 587,027; goats, 342,249; camels, 106,175.

Fisheries important.

Manufactures chiefly wool fabrics, caps, soap, and leather.

Minerals include zinc, iron, lead, copper, silver, salt, phosphate, and fine marbles.

Population, 1,923,217, mostly Bedouin Arabs and Kabyles. Tunis, capital and seaport; has important textile manufactures; population, 230,000. Mohammedanism prevails.

Government, nominally in hands of native Bey, actually carried on by French Resident-General.

SENEGAL colony consists of four municipal communes of St. Louis, the capital of the colony (population, 22,093); Dakar, a fortified naval station and seat of Government General of French West Africa (population, 24,914); Rufisque and Goree, area 438 sq. m.; territory of direct administration, area 74,000 sq. m.; population, 1,172,096.

Industry, weaving, pottery, brick making, and jewelry. Chief imports, cottons, foodstuffs, metalwork, coal; exports, oil-seeds and rubber.

Government administered by Governor-General and Colonial Council.

FRENCH GUINEA detached from Senegal 1890 and first known as Rivieres du Sud Colony. Coast territory extends inland between Sierra Leone and Portuguese Guinea.

Climate hot and unhealthful.

Population, 1,498,000. Konakry, Isle of Tombo, capital.

IVORY COAST.—Annexed by France 1892-3. Colony extends inland between Liberia and British Gold Coast, embracing Kong and other States on northeast.

Area, 130,000 sq. m.; population 1,132,812.

Climate moist and hot. Products include valuable woods, gold, india rubber, cotton, and pineapples.

Commerce increasing.

DAHOMEY stretches inland between Togoland and British Lagos; and northward to the French Military Territories.

Area of coast, about 70 miles, but opens northward into a wide hinterland.

Inhabitants engaged in **agriculture;** chief products palm oil, Indian corn, cattle, ivory.

Population, 825,950. Capital, Porto Novo, chief business center with 19,000 inhabitants.

MAURETANIA, formed into a protectorate in 1909, with an area of 344,967 sq. m.; population, 223,000, and consists of five districts, Trarza, Brakna, Gorgol, Guidimaka and Tagant.

UPPER SENEGAL AND NIGER extends between Ivory Coast on the south and Algerian sphere on the north.

Area 72,000 sq. m.; population, 4,471,031.

Industries comprise pottery, brick making, jewelry, weaving, leather making. Chief exports ground nuts, cattle, rubber, skins, and wool.

Government is under civil administration.

FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA.—History.—First trading post on Gabun established by French 1842; authority extended to Cape Lopez and Ogowe River 1862; interior between Ogowe and Kongo explored by de Brazza 1878-80, large tract of country annexed; French claims recognized by Berlin Conference 1885. Region east of Kamerun and north to Lake Tchad conceded to French 1894. Since then growth by exploration and military occupation. In 1906 three autonomous colonies formed: Gabun, Middle Congo, and Ubangi-Shari-Chad.

Area, 568,000 sq. m. Country well watered and covered with extensive forests.

Climate generally unhealthful for Europeans. Cotton, tobacco, cinnamon, pepper, gums, resins, and dyewoods produced.

Estimated native **population,** 5,000,000. Libreville, capital of Gabun and seaport. **Schools** for boys and girls.

Civil and military **government** administered by Commissioner-General.

OBOCK AND SOMALI COAST.—Protectorate acquired by France 1864. Situated on Gulf of Aden, surrounded by Eritrea, Abyssinia, and British Somali Land.

Area, 5,790 sq. m.; extends inland about 40 miles. Trade chiefly with interior countries.

Population, 208,000. Chief cities, Obock and Tajurah.

MADAGASCAR.—History.—Island known to the ancients and early Arabs; first described by Marco Polo; re-discovered by Portuguese 1506. France asserted claim over island as early as 1642. Christianity introduced 1810-28. War between French and natives 1882-4, and 1895; resulted in French protectorate; island and its dependencies declared a French colony 1896.

Area, with adjacent islands, 228,500 sq. m.; length 980 miles; breadth 360. Interior generally elevated and mountainous; coast regions and many parts of northern half of island clothed with tropical forests; luxuriance of vegetation almost unrivaled; southern portion usually plateaus, with widely extending savannas. Coasts hot and unhealthful; higher parts of interior more moderate and less trying for Europeans.

Agriculture and cattle breeding chief industries. Rice, sugar cane, coffee, vanilla, manioc, cacao, and sweet potatoes grown.

Domestic **manufactures** include weaving of silk and cotton and textures from raffia palm fiber. Imports, cotton and metal goods, rum, crockery, etc.; principal exports, gold, cattle, hides, tan bark, rubber, sugar, vanilla, rafia fiber, manioc, copal, rice, and seeds.

Minerals include gold, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, graphite and lignite. **Population,** 3,054,658; dominant race Hovas, of Malay origin. Antananarivo, capital; population, 94,813. Tamatave, chief seaport; population 8,761.

All forms of **religion** permitted; Protestants estimated to number 450,000, Roman Catholics, 50,000.

Government administered by Governor-General and administrative council.

REUNION, or BOURBON.—Island about 100 miles southwest of Mauritius. French possession

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

since 1767. **Area,** 970 sq. m. Of volcanic origin; mountainous (Piton des Neiges 10,070 feet).

Agricultural products, sugar, rum, coffee, cacao, vanilla, and spices.

Live Stock, horses, mules, oxen, sheep and goats.

Population, 173,822. St. Denis, capital; population, 23,972; connected by railway; length 77 miles, with Galle, chief port, and St. Pierre.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

GOLD COAST.—Danish settlements transferred to England, 1850; Dutch claims, 1872; colonial government established, 1874; Ashantee placed under British protection, 1895-96.

Area, colony, Ashanti and protectorate, 80,000 sq. m. Coast regions level; interior hilly. Soil fertile. Products: Palm oil and kernels, india rubber, kola nuts, and timber. Gold widely distributed.

Population, 1,502,899 (1,700 Europeans). Akra, capital and chief city; 19,585. Cape Coast Castle, 11,364. **Railways,** 168 miles. Telegraph, 1,363 miles.

Education mainly in hands of religious bodies.

GAMBIA.—Territory discovered by Portuguese, 1447; fort established by English, 1686; became British possession, 1783; annexed to Sierra Leone, 1841, independent colony, 1888.

Area, Protectorate 4,500 (colony 4 sq. m.). Products and exports: Groundnuts, hides, beeswax, rice, cotton, corn, and india rubber.

Population, 138,400 (colony 7,700). Bathurst, capital and chief city; population, 6,000.

SIERRA LEONE.—Northwest of Liberia. Unsuccessful attempt made to colonize liberated slaves, 1787; territory annexed by England, 1791; became Crown colony, 1807.

Area, colony and protectorate, 31,624 sq. m. Coast an undulating plain; interior elevated plateaus.

Forests extensive. Soil fertile, rice yielding abundantly in interior; cotton plentiful; indigo practically wild. Exports include palm oil and palm kernels, ginger, ground and kola nuts, tropical fruits, india rubber, copal, and hides. Cocoanut oil produced; workers in gold and silver numerous and skillful.

Population of total area, 1,349,012. Freetown, capital; most important seaport (fortified) of West Africa; population, 34,090.

NIGERIA bounded on the east by Kamerun, west by Dahomey, and divided into two divisions, Northern and Southern Nigeria. About nine-tenths of the area was formerly within the territories of the Royal Niger Company. In 1884-87 whole of Nigeria was declared to be under British protection; in 1900 was transferred to direct imperial administration.

NORTHERN NIGERIA, area 256,400 sq. m. Products of the low country, palm oil; inland region, rubber, groundnuts, sheabutter, ivory, hides, live stock, ostrich feathers. Cotton growing is carried on; tobacco also grown.

Minerals.—Tin ore is in rich deposits, silver also found. Protestant missionary societies have industrial schools.

Population, 9,269,000.

SOUTHERN NIGERIA comprises the colony and protectorate of Southern Nigeria and Lagos.

Climate not healthy.

Area, 77,260 sq. m.; chief products, palm-oil, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ivory, hides, earthnuts and fruits.

Minerals, manganese ore, tin ore, lignite and monazite.

Population, 7,858,689. Lagos, the capital and important port.

BRITISH SOMALI LAND.—Became a protectorate 1884. Region extends from Lahadu to Ziyada, with an **area** of 68,000 sq. m. Imports chiefly rice, textiles, and dates; exports, skins, hides, ostrich feathers, cattle, sheep, and gum.

Population, 300,000. Mohammedan nomads. Berbera, chief town; 30,000 (in trading season). **Government** administered by Political Agent and Consul.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA comprises main portion of highlands of eastern equatorial Africa. Surface in east slopes gradually to lowlands of coast; west and northwest to valley of Upper Nile. Principal river Nile; Tana and Juba chief rivers entering Indian Ocean. Has many interesting lakes; embraces northern half of Victoria Nyanza. Politically, district divided among the protectorates of East Africa, Uganda, and Zanzibar.

EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE includes the coast from Juba River to German East Africa and inland to Uganda borders. Higher plateaus, clothed with luxuriant grasses, especially adapted to stock raising. Exports: Ivory, india rubber, cattle, goats, grain, copra, gum copal, hides and horns.

Population, 4,038,000; Mombasa, capital and chief city, has a fine harbor; population, 30,000. Lamu and Kismayu, chief ports in the north; Vanga and Takaungu, south.

Protectorate under control of Governor and Commander-in-Chief.

UGANDA PROTECTORATE came under sphere of British influence 1890. Includes Uganda proper, Usoga to the east, and Unyoro and other countries west. Area, 117,681 sq. m.; population, 2,840,469. Soil, fertile. Natives skillful in pottery and working in iron. Entebbe, administrative capital.

ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE.—Zanzibar an important Mohammedan power under Imans of Maskat 1698-1807; independence confirmed 1861; placed under British protection 1890.

Area, with Pemba, 1,020 sq. m. Surface undulating and well watered; soil fertile, carefully cultivated; chief product cloves.

Population, 197,130—Arabs dominant race—(Pemba, 83,130); British Indian subjects, 10,000 Zanzibar, free port; chief trade center in this region; population, 35,000.

Mohammedanism prevails; Christian missions established. Protectorate governed through a native Sultan.

BASUTOLAND.—Country has been directly under authority of the Crown since 1884.

Area 11,716 sq. m. Surface an elevated plateau broken by high mountains; drained by Orange River.

Climate healthful; winter in elevated districts rigorous. Soil fertile; finest grain country in South Africa; wheat and kaffir corn largely grown. Extensive areas of well watered luxuriant pasture for immense herds; wool an important product. Imports: Blankets, plows, etc. Exports: Stock, grain, wool, etc.

Population, 405,600; European settlement prohibited. Maseru, capital; population 1,700.

ST. HELENA, in South Atlantic about 1,200 miles from west coast of Africa. Discovered by Portuguese 1502; belonged to East India Company 1651 to 1834. Now a British colony. Napoleon I imprisoned here 1815 to 1821.

Area, 47 sq. m. Population, 3,520.

Climate mild and agreeable. Capital, Jamestown.

MAURITIUS.—Island in Indian Ocean, 500 miles east of Madagascar. Discovered by Portuguese, 1505; confirmed as British possession 1814.

Area, 720 sq. m.

Climate unhealthful. Sugar cane, hemp, wheat, maize, yams, and manioc grown. Chief export raw sugar.

Population, 370,393. Spoken language French, official English. Port Louis, capital; population, 50,060.

Government with dependencies, Rodrigues, Diego Garcia, Seychelles Islands, vested in Governor and Executive Council.

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE.—Includes region on south and west shores of Lake Nyasa.

Area, 43,608 sq. m.

Climate in general unfavorable to Europeans. Rice, oats, and barley grown. Culture of coffee, tobacco, tea, and cotton of growing importance. Merino sheep and Natal ponies introduced. Imports, cotton goods, provisions, hardware, etc.; exports, coffee, cotton, tobacco.

Population, 970,000. Blantyre, chief town;

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

population 6,100. Zomba, seat of administration. Administered by a Governor under Foreign Office.

BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE comprises the territory lying between the Molopo and Zambezi rivers and extending from the South African Republic and Matabeland west to German Southwest Africa.

Area, 275,000 sq. m.

Climate fine; very dry in west. Natives engaged in **agriculture** and **cattle rearing.** Gold fields near Tati.

Population, 125,350. Serowe, chief town; population 17,000.

Government administered by Resident Commissioner, acting under the High Commissioner.

RHODESIA embraces the territory within the British sphere of influence to the north of Bechuanaland and the Union of South Africa. Divided into Northern and Southern Rhodesia by the Zambezi.

Area of Southern Rhodesia 148,575 sq. m.; Northern Rhodesia, 190,000 sq. m. Soil and **climate** adapted to European cereals and vegetables; subtropical trees and plants successfully grown.

Forests of hardwood timber abound. India rubber, indigo, and cotton indigenous.

Country rich in **minerals;** gold, silver, copper, tin lead, coal, and antimony exist; production of gold to date, about $85,000,000.

Population estimated at 1,755,000. Salisbury, capital of Southern Rhodesia; population 1,800.

Government administered by Resident Commissioner and Executive Council.

GERMAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

GERMAN EAST AFRICA.—German possessions in East Africa acquired 1885 to 1890. Sphere of influence embraces a coast line of about 620 miles stretches south from British East Africa to Portuguese possessions and westward to Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika.

Area, 384,180 sq. m. Coast belt low; interior mountainous, forming wide plateaus with lofty isolated peaks; Kilima-njaro, 19,320 feet, highest. Chief rivers, Rueha and Ruvu. Lake Victoria Nyanza on the north.

Forest of mangroves, coco palms, baobab, tamarind etc., cover coast regions; acacia, cotton tree, sycamore banyan, etc., abound in higher sections.

Large areas adapted to **agriculture.** Chief products: Millet, bananas, sisal, cocoanuts, cloves, castor oil, sugar cane, and vegetables. Natives have large banana plantations, also cultivate Indian corn and pulse. On coast lands German plantations of cacao, coco palms, vanilla, tobacco, and india rubber established; in more elevated districts coffee is grown. Among natives goat most common domestic animal; cattle and sheep also raised. Exports, ivory, sisal, india rubber, coffee.

Minerals known to exist are coal, iron, salt, lead, and copper.

Native **population,** 10,000,000, mostly Bantus, with Asiatic element near coast. Chief seaports: Dar-es-Salaam, 21,000; Bagamoyo, 15,000; Kilwa, 10,000.

Both Protestant and Roman Catholic religions.

Protectorate administered by an Imperial Governor.

TOGOLAND on Slave Coast between Dahomey and Gold Coast Colony. Declared a German protectorate, 1884.

Area, 33,700 sq. m. Coast low and unhealthful, interior salubrious. Maize, cotton, yams, tapioca, ginger, bananas grown; coffee culture introduced. Forest products, cocoa, palm oil, caoutchouc, dye woods. Exports, palm oil, gum, palm kernels.

Population, 1,000,000. Lome chief town and port.

Governed by Imperial Commissioner.

KAMERUN region extends between British Nigeria and French Equatorial Africa. Region became German protectorate, 1884; in 1911, France ceded over 100,000 sq. m. to Germany, giving colony outlets to Congo Basin.

Area, 291,950 sq. m. Surface of interior high plateaus sloping abruptly to Atlantic coast lands; latter generally low with exception of lofty volcanic peaks of Kameruns (Mongo Ma Loba, 13,000 feet) rising near sea. Rivers unfit for navigation. Lake Tchad on northern boundary.

Products.—Coast regions clothed with luxuriant tropical vegetation, soil of great fertility. Cacao, rubber, kola, coffee, successfully established. Interior plateaus abound in extensive savannas well adapted for raising cattle. Gold and iron found.

Population, 4,000,000; Bantu negroes near coast; Sudan negroes inland. Duala chief town, population, 22,000; Buea, seat of government.

Government and mission **schools** established. Protectorate under Imperial Governor.

GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA.—Region annexed by Germany 1884. Possessions extend along Atlantic coast 930 miles, exclusive of Walfisch Bay.

Area, 322,450 sq. m., divided into Damaraland and Great Namaqualand.

Agriculture limited, soil of southern district and large areas in eastern barren and desert. Farming increasing, by irrigation from artesian wells. Pastoral pursuits chief industry. Natives have large herds of cattle; sheep introduced from the Cape, and native goats also reared. Quantity of diamonds and copper.

Population, 82,235 (whites, 12,935). Protectorate administered by Imperial Commissioner. Windhoek, seat of administration. Chief harbors, Swakopmund, Sandwich and Angra Pequena.

ITALIAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

ERITREA.—Colony of Eritrea constituted 1890. Assab occupied 1880, town and island of Massaua 1885. Colony now embraces coast of Red Sea from Ras Kasar to Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, 670 miles, extending inland about 200 miles.

Area, 45,800 sq. m. Irrigation needed for **agriculture.** Sheep, goats, oxen, and camels raised; meats, hides, and butter produced. Pearl **fisheries** at Massaua and Dahlak Archipelago; industry in hands of Banians (Indians).

Population, 450,000, largely nomadic; Europeans, 2,930. Massaua, fortified seaport and important center of commercial exchange. Asmara, present seat of Government.

Government represented by civil governor under Minister of Foreign Affairs.

ITALIAN SOMALI LAND.—Sultanate of Obbia placed under Italian protection, 1889; protectorate extended in 1892 and 1896. By treaty of Adis Abeda, 1896, Italian dominion restricted to strip of coast extending from Ras Alula to mouth of Juba River. **Area,** 139,430 sq. m. **Population,** 400,000.

PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

EAST AFRICA.—First Portuguese settlements made on west coast 1505; colony formed 1569. Possessions divided into five districts; Mozambique, Lourenco Marques, Inhambane, Quilimane, and Tete.

Area, 293,400 sq. m. Surface of coast low and swampy, gradually rising toward interior, generally covered with **forests.** Chief river Zambezi. Soil fertile.

PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA—Continued

Natives largely engaged in **agriculture;** Indian corn grown extensively. Coffee, cotton, and sugar cane thrive. Industrial, commercial, agricultural, and mining operations conducted by Mozambique and Nyasa Companies in Manica, Sofala, and Rovuma regions. Gold, copper, iron, coal exist.

Population, 3,120,000. Mozambique, leading seaport; Lourenco Marques, capital; population, 9,849. Beira, important trading center.

Administered by a Commissioner. Mozambique and Nyasa Companies have royal charters and sovereign rights.

ANGOLA.—Region discovered by Portuguese 1486. Possessions extend from mouth of Kongo to Cunene River, over 1,000 miles; surrounded inland by Belgian Congo, British South Africa, and German Southwest Africa.

Area, 484,800 sq. m. Coast region narrow, arid lowland, succeeded by uplands reaching to mountains bounding an interior plateau. District west of Kongo basin extremely mountainous. Country well watered by numerous rivers. Coast lands unhealthful; **climate** of interior European in character.

Soil fertile; **agriculture** a flourishing pursuit. Oil palm not found below 10 deg. south; coffee grows wild in nearly all hilly districts, chief export from Ambriz; cotton grown in district of Mossamedes, sugar in lowlands; other productions, rubber, wax, vegetable oils, cocoanuts, oxen, fish, and ivory. European domestic animals reared. Malachite, copper, salt, petroleum, and iron found in large quantities; gold also exists.

Population, 4,119,000; white population greater than in any other Central African possession. S. Paulo de Loanda, capital and seaport; population, 20,106. Port Alexander, seat of fish salting industry.

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS discovered and colonized by Portuguese, 1460.

Area, 1,480 sq. m. Islands mountainous.

Climate tropical; mean temperature, 71 deg. Has flourishing cinchona plantations. Other products include coffee, cacao, tobacco, sugar, brandy, palm oil, fruits. Cattle, goats, pigs, numerous.

Manufactures.—Salt, soap, linens, pottery, and leather. Iron and amber in southern islands.

Population, 147,424; of mixed race, descendants of Portuguese settlers and negroes. Capital, Praia. Colony administered by Governor.

PORTUGUESE GUINEA.—On Senegambia coast surrounded on land side by French possessions, includes Bissagos Archipelago and Bolama Island.

Area, 13,940 sq. m. Chief products: India rubber, wax, oil seeds, ivory, and hides.

Population, 820,000. Capital, Bolama.

ST. THOMAS and PRINCE ISLANDS.—St. Thomas (Sao Thomé) discovered by Portuguese, 1470; with Prince Island (Ilha do Principe), its dependent, forms province of Portugal.

Area, 360 sq. m. Volcanic and mountainous (Pico de Sao Thomé, 7,028 feet) with luxuriant vegetation. **Climate** unhealthful; more rain than on mainland. Chief products, coffee, cacao, cinchona; sugar and vanilla also produced.

Population, 42,103; principally Creoles and Negroes. Capital, Cidade de Sao Thomé. Chief town and port (Prince Island) Sao Antonio.

Madeira Islands.—Islands known to ancients; visited by Arabs 12th century; rediscovered and colonized by Portuguese, 1420.

Area, 314 sq. m. Very mountainous (Pico Ruivo, 6,060 feet). Notable health resort for European invalids. Mean temperature, 65 deg.; highest, 85 deg.; lowest, 54 deg. Sugar cane, tobacco, and all tropical and European fruits grown; wines famous.

Population, 150,574. Funchal, capital, 20,844. An administrative district of Portugal.

SPANISH AND BELGIAN POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

SPANISH POSSESSIONS

CANARY ISLANDS.—Became a Spanish possession, 1493. Administratively part of Spain.

Area of archipelago, 2,808 sq. m. Surface mountainous, diversified by plains and valleys.

Climate equable. Chief products, sugar, cochineal, and wine; other products, tobacco, silk, oil, wheat, barley, and tropical fruits.

Population, 419,809. Capital, Sania Cruz de Teneriffe; chief port, Palmas.

Religion, Roman Catholic.

RIO DE ORO and ADRAR.—Area, 73,000 sq. m.; population, 12,000—under Governorship of Canary Islands with Subgovernor at Rio de Oro.

FERNANDO PO and ANNABON, fertile, mountainous islands in Gulf of Guinea; area, 814 sq. m.

BELGIAN POSSESSIONS

BELGIAN CONGO grew out of the Kongo International Association, founded 1835 by Leopold II, King of Belgians, and organized by Stanley, first Governor-General. Boundaries of State defined by neutrality declarations 1885; State placed under sovereignty of the King, who, 1889, bequeathed his sovereign rights to Belgium. Annexed to Belgium in 1907.

Area, 909,654 sq. m. Kongo River and its many tributaries great natural features of country. Surface rises from low coast lands to an interior elevation of 1,500-1,600 feet. Extensive **forests** in east. **Climate** generally unhealthful, especially in river lowlands.

Agriculture leading industry; tribes along the Kongo and tributaries excellent fishermen and boatmen. Chief products, rubber, ivory, palm nuts, and palm oil; coffee and tobacco thrive. **Commerce** has extended rapidly.

Population, 15,000,000, mostly of Bantu origin, many pygmy tribes. Europeans, 3,399. Boma, capital, and port on Kongo River. Banana, seaport on Kongo River; railways in operation, about 500 miles.

Native **religion** fetishism; missions co-operate with government in **educational** matters.

Government.—The King is represented by a Governor-General.

AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA

The term "Australasia" is applied to that division of the world which includes the Commonwealth of Australia and the islands of the Pacific (South Sea Islands of Polynesia), of which New Guinea is the largest. French Geographers have introduced the term "Oceania," which also embraces the Malay Archipelago. The South Sea Islands have, moreover, been grouped, on ethnographical rather than geographical grounds, into *Micronesia* (Carolines and Marianas), *Melanesia* (with dark colored inhabitants from New Guinea to the Fiji Islands), and *Polynesia* (New Zealand to the Sandwich Islands). Australasia is here used in its widest sense.

Geographical Facts

AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH

Position and Extent.—Australia, the smallest of the continents, the largest among the islands of the world, covers an area of 2,934,515 sq. m. (mainland only). It extends 2,560 miles from west to east, 1,970 miles from north to south, and its coastline has a development of 9,620 miles (exclusive of all minor bays), being 1 mile to 305 sq. m. of area. The area, including coastal islands and Tasmania, is 2,972,905 sq. m.

Population (1901), 3,815,326, inclusive of about 45,000 aborigines and 33,000 Chinese. The bulk are Europeans who have settled in the country since its discovery.

Physical Features. — Eastern portion mountainous; Great Dividing Chain, extending north and south, culminates in Australian Alps (Mt. Kosciusko, 7,336 feet). Interior mainly level or rolling plains. Western portion vast sandy desert, mountainous toward coast. Chief rivers rise on western slope of Alps; Murray most important. Largest fresh-water lake, Alexandrina; numerous salt lakes occur.

Climate generally warm, dry, and healthful; south temperate, north tropical. Interior subject to prolonged drought and heat. Rainfall abundant only on portions of north, northeast, and southeast coasts. Seasons reverse of those of Northern hemisphere.

Coast.—Most of the coast is barren and uninviting. Inlets and natural harbors abound only in the east, southeast and northwest. The northern portion of the east coast, for a distance of 1,400 miles, is fringed by coral reefs.

NEW SOUTH WALES.—The oldest Colony in Australia, is traversed throughout its entire length by a Dividing Range, which separates a narrow coastland from the interior tablelands and plains. The coastland is wooded, and is the chief seat of agriculture. The interior drains into the navigable Murray, and yields abundant pasturage. The Colony lies wholly within the temperate zone.

Area and Population.—310,700 sq. m.; Population, 1,648,210. Sydney, capital and chief port of State; population 621,100. Broken Hill, silver-mining center, 30,600. New Castle, second seaport, 55,630. Goulburn, 10,700; Parramatta, 12,550; Maitland, 10,500; Bathurst, 9,223.

VICTORIA.—A Dividing Range (Mount Bogong, 6,500 feet) separates the southern plains from the broad pastoral lands extending to the river Murray. The former are

Political and Social Facts

AUSTRALIA—

History.— Existence of continent known in 16th century. Visited by Dutch 1606. New South Wales visited and named by Captain Cook 1770; British penal colony established at Sydney, 1788; at Brisbane, Queensland, 1825. First occupation of Western Australia 1826; settlement made at Portland, Victoria, 1834; at Adelaide, South Australia, 1836. Tremendous influx of population with discovery of gold near Bathurst, 1851. Commonwealth of Australia created 1900, by federation of States of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania. Government of Colony administered by a Governor-General appointed by the Crown.

Political Divisions.—The Commonwealth of Australia was formed in 1901, and consists of the six original states of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania. Canberra, the site for the new Commonwealth Capital, is situated in the south-east of New South Wales.

Government.—The legislative powers are vested in the King (represented by the Governor-General), a Senate, and a House of Representatives of 75 members.

According to **Religion** there are about 15,000 Jews, 41,000 Buddists, etc., 2,000 Mohammedans, 21,000 heathen, and 3,736,000 Christians.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Government. — Responsible government under a Governor and Legislative Council of not less than 21 life members appointed by the Crown, and a popularly elected Assembly of 90 members.

Education.—Elementary education compulsory; age 6-14; free to poor. Government schools, and private schools. All **religions** tolerated; Church of England predominates. About two-thirds of the people Protestants.

Dependencies.—These include Norfolk Island, the home of the descendants of the mutineers of the Bounty (10 sq. m., population 827) and Lord Howe (6 sq. m., population 120) in the Tasman Sea; Pitcairn (2 sq. m., population 169) and Ducie (1 sq. m.) in the Eastern Pacific.

VICTORIA

History.—Originally a part of New South Wales; erected into a separate colony 1851. Most densely populated of Australian States.

Industry and Commerce

AUSTRALIA—

Fauna and Flora.—When discovered there were neither carnivorous animals (except the dingo,) nor ruminants. Pouched Animals (such as the kangaroo), cockatoos, the emu, and birds of paradise are most characteristic of the continent. The vegetation is equally peculiar, the principal trees being Eucalypti (grass trees, gum trees, iron bark, etc.), acacias, and casuarinas (oaks). The woods are confined to regions of heavier rainfall. Much of the interior is an open grass-land with scattered trees, degenerating in the more arid parts into a veritable desert.

Industries.—Mining (gold, copper, tin), agriculture, and the breeding of domestic animals, are the chief industries.

Commerce.—On the assumption of Australia forming a Customs Union, and therefore exclusive of inter-Colonial trade, the annual imports amount to $200,000,000 (from the United Kingdom 57 per cent), the exports to $250,000,000 (to United Kingdom 90 per cent, United States, 9 per cent).

NEW SOUTH WALES

Industries.—Agriculture and mining supports 31 per cent, industries 26 per cent of the population. Yield: Wheat, maize, tobacco, and potatoes. Principal fruit culture is the orange.

Stock raising and production of wool, chief industries.

Manufactures principally machinery, textiles, clothing, preserved meats, etc.; exports, chiefly gold, copper, wool, hides, and coal. **Mineral** resources valuable and extensive; gold deposits widely distributed; rich in silver, copper, lead, tin, iron and coal.

VICTORIA

Forests extensive and valuable; abound in beautiful and durable woods suitable for shipbuilding, carriage, cabinet work, etc., red

AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
well watered and thickly wooded, but over the latter the rainfall is deficient, and agricultural pursuits necessitate irrigation works. The climate is genial. **Area,** 87,884 sq. m. **Population,** 1,315,000—98 per cent British subjects by birth; 73 per cent native Victorians. Melbourne, capital and chief seaport; population, 591,830. Ballarat, second city, 44,000.	**Government.** — Responsible government. Governor appointed by the Crown. Legislature exercised by a Parliament of two Chambers, viz., a Legislative Council elected under a limited franchise, and a popularly elected Assembly. **Education.** — Compulsory and secular. Besides a University and 36 technological colleges, there is a fine system of elementary schools. Primary **education** free. No State **religion;** 75 per cent of population Protestants, 22 per cent Catholic.	gum most valuable; State forests cover an area of 4,160,342 acres. **Agricultural** products include cereals, hops, tobacco, fiber plants, vine and olives. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep, pigs. Wool product important. Dairy industry has made marked progress. **Manufactures** almost entirely for home consumption. Exports, principally gold, wool, live stock, etc. **Mineral** wealth, gold, coal, tin, gypsum, silver, antimony, etc.
QUEENSLAND. — Includes a narrow strip of lowland on the Coral Sea; a broad plain around the Gulf of Carpentaria, and an interior tableland, with mountains probably nowhere exceeding 5,000 feet in height. Above one-half the country is covered with natural forests. The climate is sub-tropical in the south, tropical in the north. **Area,** 668,497, sq. m. **Population,** 605,043. Chinese and Polynesians, about 20,000. Brisbane, capital, leading city and chief port; estimated population, 143,077. Rockhampton, port and mining center; population, 19,691.	**QUEENSLAND** **History.**—Eastern shore discovered by Cook, 1770; first explorations made 1823; settlements established 1825; became a separate colony 1859. **Government.**—A responsible Government vested in a Governor, a Legislative Council (members appointed for life by the Crown), and an Assembly, elected under a popular franchise. Primary **education** free; public elementary schools. All **religions** equal; 75 per cent of population Protestant, 18 per cent Catholic.	**QUEENSLAND** **Forests** cover about one-half the total surface; cedar, eucalyptus, pine, most useful timbers. **Agriculture** flourishes on eastern seaboard; leading grain crops, maize, wheat. Sugar cane occupied 95,000 acres; cotton, tobacco, rice, tropical and semi-tropical fruits successfully cultivated. **Live stock** includes horses, cattle, sheep. Wool staple production of the State. **Manufactures** principally sugar, preserved and frozen meats, meat extracts, etc. Leading exports: Gold, and other metals, coal, animal products, wool, and sugar. **Minerals,** chief source of wealth, include gold, coal, tin, copper, silver, lead, and opals.
S O U T H AUSTRALIA. — Stretches right across the continent, but the bulk of its population is concentrated in the district lying to the east of Spencer Gulf, which is traversed by a range of mountains (3,180 feet), and where the rainfall suffices for the needs of agriculture. The interior consists mainly of unproductive lands, while the extreme north affords fine pastures and abounds in gold. **Climate** compares favorably with that of southern France and Italy. **Area** of South Australia proper, 380,070 sq. m.; Northern Territory, 523,620 sq. m. **Population,** 408,558; Northern Territory, 3,310. Adelaide, capital and commercial center; population, 192,000.	**SOUTH AUSTRALIA**— **History.**—Proclaimed a British Province 1836; the Northern Territory was transferred to the commonwealth in 1911. **Government.**—Executive in the hands of a Governor appointed by the Crown and a responsible ministry; legislative power exercised by a Parliament of two Chambers—a "Council" and an "Assembly," the members of former being elected under a limited franchise for three years.	**SOUTH AUSTRALIA**— **Agriculture.**—Wheat chief crop. Wine product, 3,470,000 gallons; sugar cane, English fruit, oranges, lemons, almonds, and olives successfully grown. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep. **Manufactories** chiefly brass and iron, farming implement factories, flouring mills. **Exports,** leading articles, wool, wheat, flour, and copper. Chief **minerals** copper and silver; gold, iron, and lead also obtained.
WESTERN AUSTRALIA. — Largest Australian State. **Area,** 975,920 sq. m. It consists in the main of a vast tableland of moderate elevation. Woods are found only in the tropical north and the extreme southwest; the interior is a desert; the rest affords pasture. **Population,** exclusive of aborigines, 283,986. Perth, capital and trade center; population, 54,354. Fremantle, chief port, 19,346.	**WESTERN AUSTRALIA**— **Government.**—A State Government, vested in a Governor appointed by the Crown; a Legislative Council, elected for six years under a limited franchise; and a popular chosen Assembly. **Education** compulsory; government schools. All **religions** equal.	**WESTERN AUSTRALIA** Estimated **forest** area 20,400,000 acres; jarrah (eucalyptus), noted for its durability, covers vast tracts; timber especially valuable for bridge building and harbor work; sandalwood, abundant in southwest, long an article of export. **Agriculture** advancing; large tracts of fertile soil exist. Principal cereal, wheat; fruits grow luxuriantly; culture of vine extending. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep, etc. Pearl **fisheries** important. Exports, chiefly gold. **Minerals** leading source of wealth; gold, silver, copper, tin and coal obtained.
TASMANIA.—Surface generally hilly (Mount Lomond, 5,000 feet). **Area,** including Macquarie, 26,215 sq. m. Surface in general mountainous (Cradle Mountain, 5,069 feet). Derwent most important river. **Climate** mild and delightful. **Population,** 190,898. Hobart, capital; population, 27,719, Launceston, 20,838.	**TASMANIA**— **History.**—Discovered by Tasman 1642 and named Van Diemen's Land; British penal colony established 1804; transportation of criminals ceased 1853. Renamed Tasmania 1856. **Government.**—A responsible government vested in a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. **Education** compulsory. All **religions** equal.	**TASMANIA**— Extensive **forests,** abounding in beautiful cabinet woods and other valuable timbers, exist; blue gum most valuable tree. Chief cereal wheat. **Live stock,** horses, cattle, sheep. Wool clip, 9,940,000 pounds. Fruit-preserving a leading industry, ore smelting works, breweries, tanneries, etc. Exports: Leading articles wool, gold and silver, tin, fruit, timber, hops. **Minerals** include gold, silver, tin, copper, galena, and coal.

AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA—Continued

Geographical Facts	Political and Social Facts	Industry and Commerce
NEW ZEALAND Comprises North, Middle or South, and Stewart Islands and outlying islets; total **area** 104,751 sq. m. Large islands mountainous (Mt. Cook, 12,349 feet); rivers abound, few navigable. **Climate** healthful; rainfall most abundant on west coast. **Population,** 1911, exclusive of aborigines, 1,008,468. Wellington, capital; population, with suburbs, 70,729. Auckland, port of call for California mail steamers; with suburbs, 102,676. **Dependencies.**—In addition to Chatham Island, Kermadec, etc., included above, the Cook, or Hervey, Isles (142 sq. m., population 6,234); Savage Island (26 sq. m., population 4,079); and Penrhyn, Manahiki, etc., (52 sq. m., population 1,979). Total, 230 sq. m., population 12,292.	**Dependency.**—In addition to islands in Bass Strait, included above, Macquarie Island, no inhabitants, but annually visited by a few sealers. **NEW ZEALAND—** **History.**—Sighted and named by Tasman, 1642; visited by Cook 1769; recognized as British possession 1814. First colonial settlement made at Wellington 1840. Designated Dominion of New Zealand, 1907. **Government.**—Governor and General Assembly, including a Legislative Council (members appointed by the Crown for 7 years), and a House of Representatives. **Religion.**—Protestants, 84 per cent, Roman Catholics, 14 per cent. **Education** highly developed.	**NEW ZEALAND** **Forests** cover about 17,000,000 acres; kauri pine most valuable for timber and gum. Two-thirds of area suitable for **agriculture** and grazing. Wheat and oats principal crops. Olive, vine, and semi-tropical fruits raised. **Stock raising** chief industry; horses, cattle, sheep, pigs. Wool clip, 210,010,000 pounds. Leading **manufactures** freezing and preserving meats. Exports: gold, silver, coal, and kauri gum.

BRITISH AND DUTCH POSSESSIONS

BRITISH EAST INDIES.—Comprise British North Borneo, Island of Labuan, and protectorates of Brunei and Sarawak.

British North Borneo held under grants from Sultans of Brunei and Sulu; became a British protectorate 1888.

Area, 31,106 sq. m. Coast line 900 miles. Tobacco, coffee, cocoanut, india rubber and ramie plantations established. Sago, rice, Indian corn, sugar cane, cotton, ground and betel nuts, tapioca and sweet potatoes grown by natives. Other exports are timber, rattan, india rubber, sago, birds' nests, and pearls.

Minerals include gold and coal in paying quantities.

Population, 200,000, principally Mohammedan settlers on coast, aboriginal tribes in interior, and some Chinese traders and artisans. Sandakan, capital; population, 6,000. Protestant and Roman Catholic missions established. Region under jurisdiction of British North Borneo Company; administered by Governor at Borneo and Court of Directors in London.

Labuan incorporated with Singapore 1907; area 30 sq. m.; population, 6,546.

Sarawak.—Part of territory obtained by Sir James Brooke from Sultan of Brunei 1842; other accessions, 1861, 1885, and 1890; placed under British protection 1888.

Area, 42,000 sq. m.; coast line, 400 miles. Extensive level tracts along coast. Principal vegetable product sago; Sarawak export of sago largest in world; cocoanuts also abundant. India rubber and other **forest** products, obtained chiefly in middle section, and gambier and pepper all largely exported. Southern section rich in **minerals;** antimony and quicksilver exported; coal abundant, also gold and silver.

Population, 500,000. Kuching. or Sarawak, capital; population, about 25,000.

Government administered by a Rajah.

Brunel placed under British protection 1888.

Area, 4,000 sq. m. Products similar to those of North Borneo. Coal mined.

Population, 21,718. Capital Brunei on wide estuary of Brunei River; population, 10,000. Head of **government** Sultan.

FIJI ISLANDS.—Discovered by Tasman 1643; ceded by native chiefs to Great Britain 1874. Islands—numbering more than 200—are of volcanic origin, with lofty mountains, and well wooded.

Area, 7,435 sq. m.; largest, Viti Levu, 4,250. **Climate** warm but healthful; mean temperature, about 80 deg. Sugar, cocoanuts and bananas, chief products. Cattle run wild; horses, sheep, and Angora goats reared.

Estimated **population,** 139,541—3,707 Europeans. Suva, capital; has 1,376 European inhabitants. Public **schools** at Suva and Levuka; state school for natives only.

Besides the islands constituting Australasia, the principal groups, and isolated islands belonging to Great Britain are Cook Islands, Manihiki, Tokelau and Phœnix groups, Ellice Islands, Gilbert Islands, Santa Cruz Islands, British Solomon Islands, and the Islands of Pitcairn, Fanning, Malden and Christmas. New Hebrides Islands jointly protected by Great Britain and France.

DUTCH EAST INDIES

These include Java (population 28,747,000) and outlying possessions and feudatory states. **Area,** excluding the Dutch part of New Guinea, 587,156 sq. m., population 35,800,000, of whom about 76,000 are Europeans, 537,000 Chinese, 27,000 Arabs, 17,000 Indians, 100,000 Negritos, the remainder being Malays. According to religion there are 424,000 Christians, 32,800,000 Mohammedans, 1,080,000 Buddhists, etc., 1,500,000 heathen.

Staple exports: Sugar, coffee, tobacco, tin (from Banka and Billiton). Chief trade with the Netherlands, 56 per cent, and the British Indies.

Chief towns.—Batavia, 115,887; Surakarta, 109,458; Surabaya, 146,944.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS

FRENCH POSSESSIONS—

Comprise New Caledonia and dependencies, and the Society Islands, the Marquesas, Tuamotu, Gambier, and Tubuai groups, and the Island of Rapa.

SOCIETY ISLANDS discovered by Spanish 1606; visited by Capt. Wallis 1767; by Cook 1769. Under French protection since 1842; Windward group annexed 1880; Leeward 1885. Archipelago in eastern portion of Polynesia.

Area, 650 sq. m. (Tahiti, 600; Moorea, 50). Island mountainous; well watered by numerous streams. Chief productions vanilla, coffee, copra, sugar, and mother-of-pearl. **Population** of Tahiti, 11,691; Moorea, 1,564. Papeete, chief town and port; 3,617. Inhabitants nominally Christians. **Government** vested in a Governor and Consulting Council.

NEW CALEDONIA (French penal colony—) discovered by Cook 1774; seized and colonized by

FRENCH POSSESSIONS—Continued

French 1853. Island and dependencies—Isle of Pines, 58 sq. m., Loyalty Archipelago, 756 sq. m. Huon and Chesterfield islands between Australia and Fiji, and Wallis Archipelago, north-east of Fiji.

Area 7,650 sq. m. Products, cereals, pineapples, coffee, sugar, cocoanuts, cotton, manioc, vanilla, vines, cattle. Chief articles of import: Apparel wines, spirits, provisions, etc. Exports: nickel, preserved meat, chrome, and silver lead ore. **Minerals** include coal, nickel, lead ore, chrome, and cobalt. **Population,** 55,886; natives, 32,427; penal, 7,034. Noumea, capital and seaport; population, 8,451. **Government** vested in Governor, with Council-General and municipal councils.

MARQUESAS.—Four of the islands discovered by Mendana 1596; others by Cook 1774. Under French protection since 1842. Group comprises 13 islands in Polynesia.

Area 480 sq. m. Surface mountainous. Products pulse, yams, sugar cane, bamboos, cocoanuts, wild cotton, etc. **Live stock,** copra, and cotton exported. **Population,** 3,424, about one-tenth of that in 1842.

TUAMOTU ISLANDS discovered 1797; French missionaries settled at Mangareva 1834. Islands, over 80 in number. Group forms a dependency of French possession of Tahiti. Total **area** 330 sq. m. Very little productive soil. **Population** 3,828 French Resident at Rotoana, on Fakarava Island.

GERMAN POSSESSIONS

GERMAN POSSESSIONS.—

Embrace the northeastern portion of New Guinea (Kaiser Wilhelm's Land), Bismarck Archipelago, the northerly part of the Solomon group, Marshall Islands, the Marianne or Ladrone Islands (exclusive of Guam), the Caroline Islands and Pelew Islands.

CAROLINE ISLANDS.—Discovered by Portuguese, 1526; named for Charles II of Spain 1686; Spanish claims contested by English, 1875; awarded to Spain by Pope, 1885. Ceded to Germany 1899. Group consists of 700 islands lying east of Philippines.

Area, 270 sq. m. Chief products copra, oranges, bread-fruit, cocoanuts, cloves, and sugar cane. **Population** about 52,000. Western capital Yap, eastern Ponape.

MARIANNE and PELEW ISLANDS.—Discovered by Magellan 1521 occupied by Spain 1668 with exception of Guam, ceded to Germany 1899. Group lies west and north of Caroline and east of Philippine Islands. **Area** 420 sq. m. **Population,** 6,000.

MARSHALL ISLANDS.—Annexed to Germany 1885-6. Group of 33 coral islands—in two chains—east of Caroline Islands. **Area** 158 sq. m. Cocoa palms cultivated. Phosphates and copra chief articles of trade. **Population,** 15,000. Europeans, 179. Jaluit, chief island, seat of German Imperial Commissioner.

BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO.—Discovered by Dampier 1699 and named New Britain Islands. Became a German protectorate and renamed 1884. Archipelago lies northeast of New Guinea.

Area, including Admiralty Islands, 20,000 sq. m. Natives agriculturists. Cotton plantations established by Germans. Exports: Cocoanuts, copra, and cocoanut fibers. **Population** about 188,000. Herbertshöhe, seat of government for Bismarck Archipelago and German New Guinea.

ISLANDS OCCUPIED JOINTLY

NEW GUINEA discovered by Portuguese 1511; named Papua in 1526; New Guinea 1545. Visited by Dutch 1676. Circumnavigated by Dampier 1699. Dutch took possession of country west of 141 deg. east, 1828. Southeastern portion became British protectorate 1884; a Crown Colony 1888. German protectorate established in northeast 1884. Total **area** about 312,000 sq. m. Interior wide plains and lofty mountains; greatest elevation 16,000 feet. Chief rivers Kaiserin Augusta and Fly. Northern coast mountainous, southwestern low and marshy. Coast line deeply indented; has fine harbors.

Dense **forests** contain cedar, sandalwood, ebony, india rubber, areca and sago palms, bamboos, etc. Soil adapted to tobacco, rice, tea, sugar cane, coffee, cotton, fruits, etc. Germans have established cotton and tobacco plantations. Bananas, yams, sweet potatoes, and taro, chief food of natives, largely cultivated. Horses, cattle, and goats reared. Chief **industries** wood carving and manufacture of rope and pottery. Leading exports—copra, pearl shell, trepang, gold, pearls, and sandalwood. Gold, coal, and plumbago found. **Population** about 1,800,000. Area of **Papua (British),** 90,540 sq. m.; population 270,000. Government administered by Lieutenant-Governor. New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland furnish funds and have a voice in its affairs. Port Moresby, capital; population 1,500.

Kaiser Wilhelm's Land—German New Guinea—area 70,000 sq. m.; population about 300,000. In hands of German New Guinea Company. Friedrick Wilhelmshafen most important harbor.

SAMOAN ISLANDS.—Earliest explorations by Bougainville 1768; Christianity introduced 1830. Neutrality and independence guaranteed by Great Britain, United States, and Germany 1889. Islands divided between Germany and United States 1899. In middle of Pacific about 400 miles northeast of Fiji; the largest, Savaii and Upolu, belong to Germany. Tutuila and adjacent islands to United States.

Total **area** 1,701 sq. m. Chief products sugar, coffee, cotton, maize, tropical fruits. **Population** 39,300 (Upolu 20,662; Savaii 12,816); whites, 1911, 447. Apia, chief trading center; population 3,742. Pago-pago, Tutuila, fine natural harbor. Natives—Polynesians—are Christians.

NEW HEBRIDES discovered by Spanish 1606; explored and named by Cook 1774. Group northeast of New Caledonia, stretches northwest and southeast 500 miles. **Area,** 5,700 sq. m. Cocoanuts (for copra), maize, millet, coffee, and bananas grown. **Population** about 80,000. Jointly administered by France and England.

SOLOMON ISLANDS discovered by Mendana 1567-8; re-discovered by Bougainville 1768. Archipelago in Melanesia, 500 miles east of New Guinea. **Area** 16,950 sq. m., in large part covered with thick **forests.** Chief commercial products tortoise shell, copra, ivory nuts, and sandalwood. Germany has Bougainville and dependencies in the north; southern portion of group under British rule; Choiseul and Isabel ceded to Great Britain by Germany 1899.

POLAR REGIONS

ARCTIC EXPLORATION

Commander	Nationality	Date	N. lat. att'nd	Locality
John Davis	British	1587	72° 41′	West Greenland
Wm. Barentz	Dutch	1594	77° 20′	Nova Zembla.
Henry Hudson	British	1607	80° 23′	Greenland and Spitzbergen
Henry Hudson	British	1610	—	Hudson strait.
William Baffin	British	1616	77° 45′	Smith sound.
V. Bering	Danish	1728	70° 41′	disc. Bering Strait.
Tchelyuskin	Russian	1743	77° 48′	North Siberia.
J. C. Phipps	British	1773	80° 48′	Spitzbergen Sea.
William Scoresby	British	1806	81° 12′	East Greenland
W. E. Parry	British	1827	82° 43′	Spitzbergen Sea
John Franklin	British	1846	—	North Canada
E. K. Kane	Amer.	1854	78° 45′	Smith Sound.
O. Nordenskiold	Swede	1868	81° 42′	Spitzbergen Sea.
C. F. Hall	Amer.	1871	82° 16′	West Greenland coast.
Julius Payer	Austria	1874	82° 5′	disc. Franz Josef Land.
G. S. Nares	British	1876	83° 20′	Grinnell Land.
Nordenskiold	Swede	1876–9	77° 41′	First northeast passage.
A. W. Greely	Amer.	1882	83° 24′	North Greenland.
Fred. Jackson	British	1896	81° 20′	Franz Josef Land.
Fridtjof Nansen	Norw.	1896	86° 14′	North of Franz Josef Land.
Duke of Abruzzi	Italian	1900	86° 33′	North of Franz Josef Land.
R. E. Peary	Amer.	1906	87° 6′	North of Grant Land.
F. A. Cook	Amer.	1908	—	Claimed to have reached the pole, April 21.
R. E. Peary	Amer.	1909	90°	Reached the pole April 6.

ARCTIC REGIONS.—

Lands within the Arctic Circle comprise 1,233,000 square miles; most important, Greenland and Arctic Archipelago in America; Spitzbergen, Novaya Zemlya, Franz Josef Land, Kolguev, Jan Mayen, and Lofoten Islands, Europe; Lyakhov, New Siberia, Kotelnyi, and Wrangel Land Islands, Asia.

Greenland.—Discovered by Eric the Red, 986; colonized by Norsemen; rediscovered by Davis, 1585; recolonized by Danes, 1721. Recent explorers include Kane, Hill, Nares, Greely, Nansen, 1888; Peary, 1889–92, 1893-95, and 1900-02. Interior a lofty plateau overspread by a glacier, height, 9,000 to 10,000 feet. Shores deeply indented by fiords; source of North Atlantic Icebergs. **Area** about 700,000 square miles in all; only 34,000 habitable. **Climate** severe, country icebound October to about June. Inhabitants, chiefly Eskimos, on west coast between Cape Farewell and 73 deg. N.; largely engaged in whale and seal fisheries; population, 1901, 11,893. Exports: Sealskins, blubber, codliver oil, and ivory. Danish colony; divided into two inspectorates: Godthaab, seat of inspector of South; Godhavn, seat of inspector of North.

Arctic Archipelago of North America.—Islands belong to British North America. Area estimated at 502,440 square miles; islands entirely within Arctic Circle, 416,000; population about 1,000.

Spitzbergen.—Discovered 1596 by Dutch under Jacob van Heemskerk. Base of Arctic expeditions especially those of Nordenskjold and other Swedish explorers. Group belongs to Russia; comprises six larger and many smaller islands—Western Spitzbergen, most important, area 15,200 sq. m. Surface almost entirely covered with ice and snow. Winter for ten months, during which time mercury freezes. Not permanently inhabited; frequented by Dutch, Danish and Norwegian whalers. Numerous whales, seals, and white bears; reindeer in some parts. Coal has been worked since 1900. Smeerenberg Bay affords best anchorage.

Novaya Zemlya (Nova Zembla).—Discovered by English, 1553, visited by Barentz, 1594; explored by Count Lütke, 1821-24; visited in late years by numerous expeditions; crossed by Grinevetsky, 1878. Belongs to Russia. Surface elevated and mountainous, northern part covered by an ice-sheet. **Area,** 35,163 square miles. Average yearly temperature west coast, 17 deg.; summer, 36.5 deg.; corresponding latitudes on east coast still lower. On west coast influences of Gulf Stream felt. Brown and white bear, common and polar fox, and wolf found; walruses, seals, and dolphins abound on the coasts. Permanent settlement of Samoyede families at Karmakuly.

Franz Josef Land.—Discovered by Austrian navigators, Payer and Weyprecht, Aug. 31, 1873; explored by them in 1874. Extensive explorations by Jackson-Harmsworth expedition, 1894-97. Wellman expedition 1898-99. **Area** estimated 19,000 sq. m. Uninhabited. Mean annual temperature, 4.6 deg.; Feb., 22 deg.; July, 35.2 deg.

Kolguev.—Belongs to Russia. **Area,** 1,627 sq. m. Surface tundra, altitude 100 to 140 feet. Visited by Arctic hunters for white bears, walruses, etc.

ANTARCTIC REGIONS.—

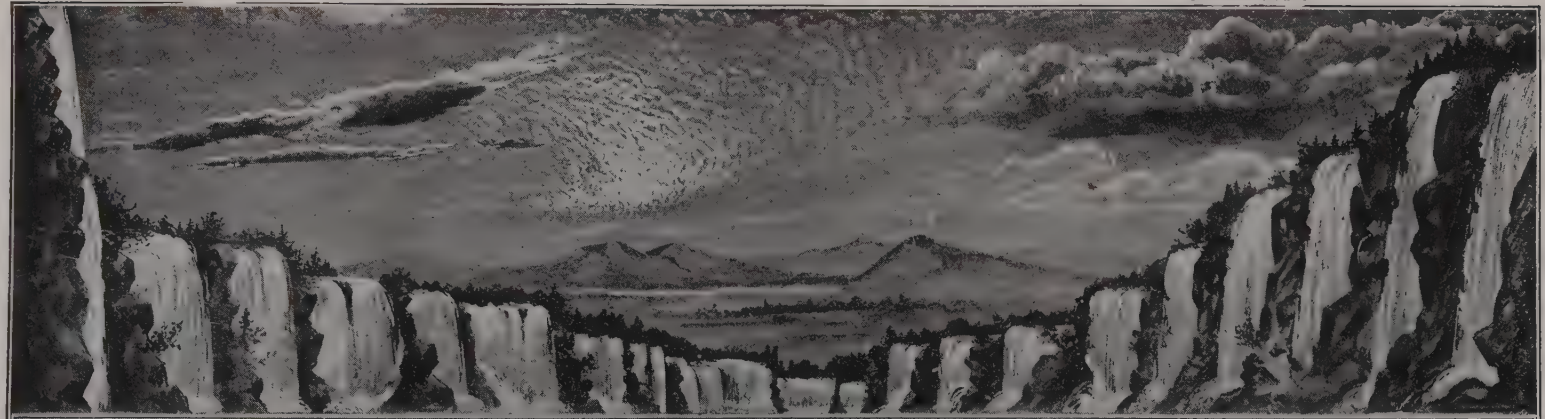
Lands discovered within Antarctic regions almost everywhere inaccessible. Recent explorations determined character of polar region as an elevated land-mass of continental proportions, containing great beds of coal and other mineral wealth. Antarctic regions as compared with Arctic remarkable for low temperature. Icebergs from Arctic Ocean carried south as far as 40th parallel; bergs and floes from Antarctic found, even in summer, 10 or 15 degrees nearer equator. In warmest part midsummer temperature is practically at freezing point. Entire region within snow line.

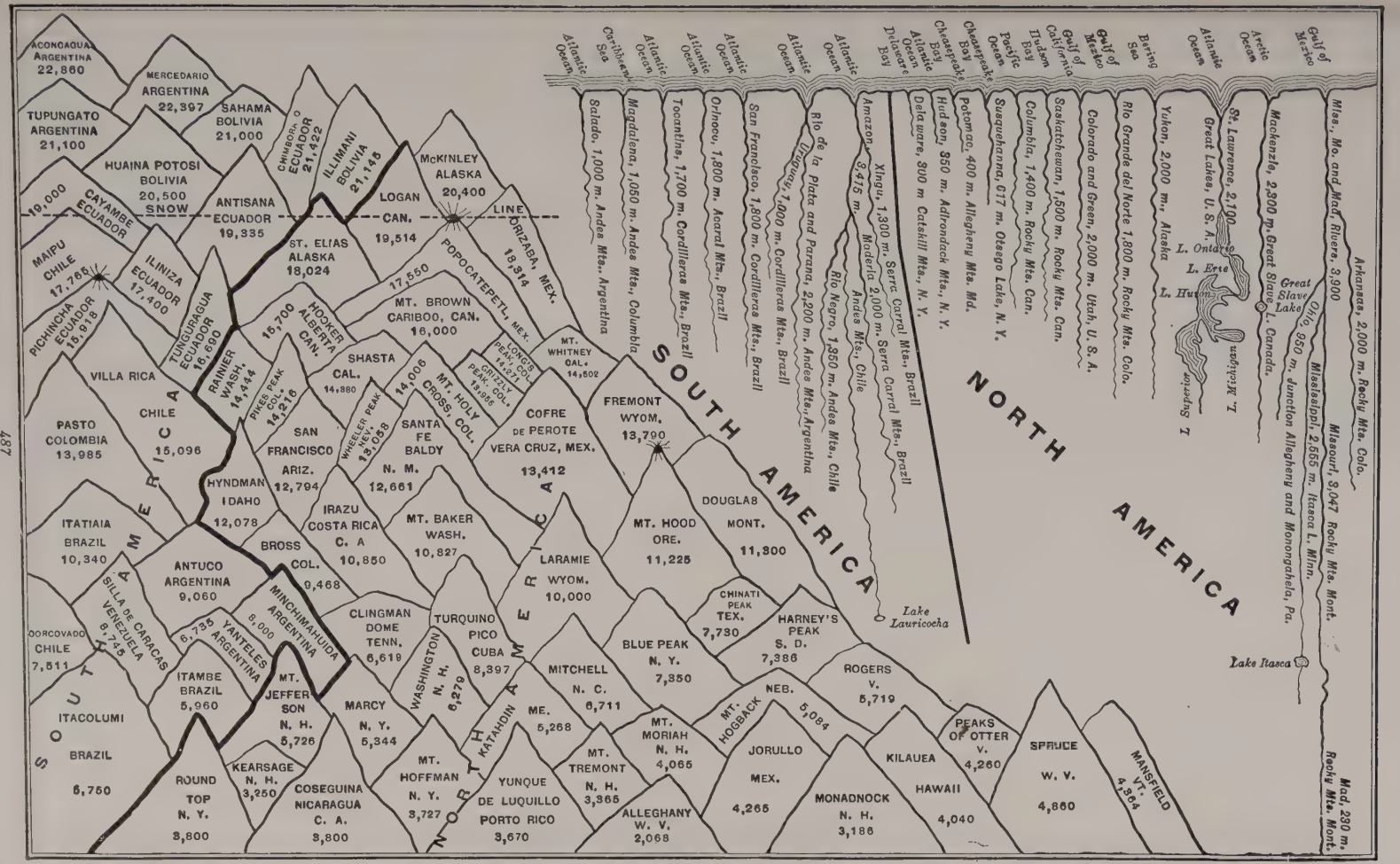
ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION

Commander	Nationality	Date	South Latitude	Longitude
J. Cook	British	1773	67° 5′	142° W.
J. Cook	British	1774	71° 15′	106° W.
Bellingshausen	Russian	1820	67°	var.
Weddell	British	1824	74° 15′	34° W.
D'Urville	French	1840	66°	140° E.
Wilkes	British	1840	66°	var.
James Ross	British	1840	71° 56′	171° E.
James Ross	British	1843	78° 11′	161° E.
Larsen	Norwegian	1893	68° 10′	60° W.
Christiansen	Swedish	1895	74° 0′	170° E.
De Gerlache	Belgian	1899	71° 36′	87° W.
Borchgrevink	Br.-Nor.	1900	78° 50′	165° W.
Scott	British	1902	82° 17′	163° W.
Bruce	British	1904	74° 0′	24° W.
Shackleton	British	1909	88° 23′	
Amundsen	Norwegian	1911	Reached pole	Dec. 14
Scott	British	1912	Reached pole	Jan. 18

COMPARATIVE SIZE OF WATERFALLS, ISLANDS AND LAKES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

Cumulo stratus clouds | Cirrus clouds | Cumulus clouds





COMPARATIVE HEIGHT OF MOUNTAINS IN FEET

LENGTH OF IMPORTANT RIVERS, THEIR SOURCE AND MOUTH

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